

ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF INDIA
WITH
SOUTH-EAST ASIA AND THE FAR EAST

BY

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P R E F A C E

The present paper was prepared primarily for the India-America Conference to be held on December 12, 1949, at the request of the Indian Council of World Affairs. Work on it was begun at the end of July 1948 and was completed by the end of the year. As the paper had necessarily to be prepared within a short period, I had to depend on material that was available to me. This was not as full as could have been desired. For instance, regarding the trade of India with South-East Asian and Far Eastern Countries, I had almost completely to depend upon the *Review of the Trade of India*. The picture of the trade with India as viewed from the other end was not available to me because trade statistics and reports from these countries were not at hand. As a consequence the paper presents a tentative picture ; but even so it is hoped its publication will serve the purpose of giving some information on a subject that is not widely known in this country.

Mr. P. D. Sakhalkar, acted as my assistant in the preparation of this paper. He prepared the first rough draft of the section on trade. I have had the benefit of numerous discussions with Professor D. R. Gadgil at various stages of the work. The responsibility for views, etc. in the paper is, however, entirely mine.

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ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF INDIA WITH SOUTH-EAST ASIAN AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES

I. INTRODUCTORY

Economic relations between countries usually take three forms ; movements of (i) commodities and services, (ii) people and (iii) capital. As capital investment either way is quite insignificant, the economic relations between India and the South-East Asian and Far Eastern Countries are confined to the first two forms only. These two will be discussed in this paper.

II. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH-EAST ASIAN AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES

Indian trade statistics are available from 1870 onwards but upto 1910-11 exports were credited to the country where the port of discharge was located and imports to countries whence they were shipped to India. From 1911-12¹ imports began to be classified as received from countries whence they were consigned to British India. Exports were credited to the country of final destination. A detailed consideration of trade could only be attempted for the period beginning with 1911-12. Only general comments, based on the information contained in the *Review of the Trade of India*, regarding the trade during the period 1870-1911, have been made at places to complete the picture as far as possible. Early in 1942 most of the countries under reference, except Ceylon, Australia and New Zealand, were cut off due to the Japanese occupation and the war in the Pacific. Trade came to a standstill. Trade statistics are, therefore, available upto the year 1942 only. Detailed discussion regarding trade is confined to the period 1911-1942. Because of the absence of statistical data no discussion regarding the trade in the years after the end of World War II could be attempted.

CEYLON

Ceylon is India's nearest neighbour by sea and has been, from ancient times, subject to India's economic and cultural influences. The trade between India and Ceylon is of long standing.²

1. Introductory Note to Vol. I of *The Seaborne Trade of India with the British Empire and foreign countries*.

2. Commenting on the Indo-Ceylonese trade during the latter part of the nineteenth century *The Review of the Trade of India for 1886-87* remarked: "The largest item in the import trade are betelnuts, coconuts, whole and in kernel (kopra) coir and coir goods, and coconut oil. The products of the areca and coco palms form in fact three-fifths of the imports from Ceylon into India. The other imports are severally of no special importance. It may be said that at least four-fifths of the exports consist of rice and other foodstuffs, with oil and clothing for Madras coolies employed on the Ceylon plantations." (p. 26).

Table 1 sets out the figures regarding Indo-Ceylonese trade during 1911-42. Among the commodities imported from Ceylon the more important are tea, coffee, jute gunny bags, rubber, coconut oil and spices. Of these the imports of tea, coffee, and jute gunny bags are at first puzzling as all these are produced in India on a very large scale.

The import of tea into India from Ceylon began early and continues even today. It has evoked comment from early days that it amounted to carrying coal to Newcastle. The explanation of these imports is to be found in the transport and freight advantages enjoyed by Ceylon tea in regard to certain parts of India. The *Review of the Trade of India* for 1895-96 remarked: 'The import of tea is a remarkable feature in the trade. The conditions of transport which reduce Western India to the necessity of importing about a million lbs. of Ceylon tea annually merit the close attention of those who are interested in the Indian tea industry.'³ During 1911-17 these imports averaged 1,900,000 lbs. In the following quinquennium, they were very much larger being on the average 4,360,000 lbs. annually. This was because of low production in India due to bad seasons, and partly also because of voluntary restriction of production by Indian tea planters. They gradually expanded thereafter reaching the peak at 2,729,000 lbs. in 1931-32. After the International Tea Control Scheme was adopted in 1933, imports were reduced to a few hundred thousand lbs. and did not increase till 1942-3.

As regards coffee, the imports from Ceylon consisted mainly of raw beans. They began to be imported into India from 1920 and stopped in 1931, i.e. after the passage of the Destructive Insects and Pests Act prohibiting the import of coffee plant, seeds and beans into India.

The import of jute gunny bags has been explained by *The Review of the Trade of India* for 1896-97 as follows: 'The gunny bags are of Indian manufacture, some of them "returned empties" others sent to Colombo for easy distribution to the southern Madras ports'⁴

3. Page 64.

4. Page 64.

Imports of coconut oil from Ceylon are of long standing. They were particularly heavy after 1930-31, when the average imports totalled 1,643,000 gallons annually during the four years preceding 1930-31, while in the four years following the average was 5,000,000 gallons annually. They declined thereafter and were very considerably reduced after 1940-41. During 1942-43, the U. K. Ministry of Food assumed complete control of Ceylon's entire exportable surplus of copra and coconut oil and rationed it among the consuming countries, India being allotted only 50,000 tons per annum.⁵

Imports of raw rubber from Ceylon began on a significant scale after World War I and though fluctuating, had expanded to 62,605 lbs. in 1927-28. In 1929-30 they suddenly shot up to 228,400 lbs. They ruled high during the following three years and in 1933-34 leapt up to 886,354 lbs. and further to 1 million lbs. in the year following. They ruled lower during the following years and fell down to 9,872 lbs. only in 1938-39. In 1939-40 they increased to 74,136 lbs. and in the following two years they averaged about 1 million lbs. per year. In 1943-44 they were sharply down to 129,529 lbs. When Malaya and Indonesia were occupied by Japan in 1942 the demand for Ceylonese rubber increased many times over. Stimulated by higher prices, bonus payments and a "slaughter tapping" plan that compensated owners for the destruction of trees in consequence of over-tapping, Ceylonese exports rose markedly over the 1941 level of about 90,000 tons. Exports expanded to nearly 125,000 tons in 1942, and 150,000 tons in the following year. Labour shortage and the effects of previous overtapping combined with adverse weather conditions reduced the country's output to less than 100,000 tons in 1944.⁶ Imports of rubber into India during these years were generally in conformity with the rise and fall of total exports from that country.

Exports of rice from India to Ceylon mostly originated in Burma and need not be commented upon here. It need be only pointed out that during World War II, when Burma was

5. *Review of the Trade of India, 1943-44*; p. 67.

6. Knorr, *World Rubber and its Regulation*, p. 180.

cut off by enemy action, rice from India was made available to Ceylon in large quantities. Exports of tea from India to Ceylon are mainly goods in transit. As the *Sea-borne Trade of India* (1932) notes: 'Tea consigned from British India to Ceylon is almost entirely transhipped at Colombo to other countries.'

Grain, pulses, provisions, spices (chillies, ginger, pepper), oilseeds (groundnut, mustard, rape, sesame) fruits, vegetables and manure are also exported to Ceylon from India. They are severally of small significance and need not be commented upon in detail.

In the exports of cotton manufactures, twist and yarn are relatively of small significance, the main exports being those of cotton piecegoods. In the quinquennium preceding World War I, exports of cotton piecegoods to Ceylon were on an average 9.5 million yards. They increased during the war and in the quinquennium following World War I averaged 16.7 million yards. They recorded a further rise in the following years, reaching 21.7 million yards in 1926-27. There was a decline thereafter and they fell to 13.1 million yards in 1932-33. A gradual recovery followed and they increased to 26.9 million yards in 1937-38. Under the Ottawa Agreement of 1933, Ceylon had granted 10% *ad valorem* preference to Indian cotton piecegoods. During World War II exports increased very considerably and in 1942-43 amounted to 52.5 million yards.

The export of jute gunny bags and cloth to Ceylon began in the 'seventies of the last century. The exports of jute cloth are the more important of the two. In the inter war period these showed a rising trend upto 1928-29, in which year they amounted to 3.4 million yards. This was followed by a decline and in the quinquennium ending 1938-39 they averaged 2.0 million yards. They declined still further during the early war period, but were very large in 1942-43 being 5.9 million yards.

BURMA

Upto 1937 Burma was economically, politically and administratively a part of India. In that year she was separated

from India. Table 2 gives figures regarding Indo-Burmese trade from 1911-42. Upto 1937 the figures are those recorded by the *Burma Trade Returns*, reproduced in the *Review of the Trade of India*.

From Burma India imports rice, mineral oil and teak wood. Rice imports from Burma showed a steady increase during the 15 years preceding the outbreak of World War I. These increased heavily during World War I, an increase of nearly 60% over the pre-war quinquennium, but recorded a small decline in the quinquennium following the end of World War I, and an increase in the subsequent years. During the thirties they increased particularly sharply. During these years the imports of rice in the husk have shown a continuous decline, except for a rather sharp increase during the thirties. Imports of rice not in the husk have increased. The crucial importance of rice supplies from Burma to India was realised during World War II, when these supplies were interrupted. Areas like the Konkon, Cochin and Travancore were particularly dependent on Burma for more than half of their annual requirements of rice.⁷

Imports of kerosene oil have shown a steady rise during the earlier part of the period and a fair stability later on. Imports of petrol began during World War I and increased speedily during the postwar period which witnessed the development and growth of motor transport in India. From, on an average, 14 million gallons per year in the quinquennium following World War I they had increased to an annual average of 58 million gallons in the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of World War II.

India has been importing teak from Burma for a long time. During World War I teak imports went down slightly but increased again after the war and showed a rising trend upto 1927-28. Then followed a decline which continued upto

7. The Government of India imposed an import duty of 12 as. per maund on imports of broken rice in 1935. So long as Burma was a part of India, rice imports from Burma were treated as internal. After separation, Burma rice imports were exempted from this duty under the India-Burma Regulation Order, 1937.

1931-32. Imports revived again in the following years and reached the old level in 1935-36. There followed again a decline upto the outbreak of World War II.

The main items of export from India to Burma are cotton textiles and jute bags. The exports of cotton twist and yarn increased considerably during and after World War I, but declined steadily after being stationary for some years, after 1922-23. They showed a small increase in 1938-9 the increase being sharper in the following two years. In 1940-41 they were three and a half times more than those of 1938-39 but declined in the following year.

Exports of cotton piecegoods increased from about 16 million yards per year in the quinquennium preceding World War I to about 26 million yards per year during the war. In the following years there was a decline and during the decade ending 1930-31 the average exports per year were around 18 million yards. In 1931-32 they jumped up to 26 million yards and continued to mount rapidly during the subsequent years. This increase was probably due to the imposition of protective duties against the import of foreign and especially Japanese textiles. On the eve of World War II, exports amounted to 59 million yards. In the first two years of the war they averaged 104 million yards. Exports of gunny bags show considerable stability and a very gently rising trend from before the outbreak of World War I. There was a sharp increase in the thirties when the exports of rice from Burma increased. From about 39 million yards per year in the quinquennium preceding World War I they had increased to about 55 million yards per year in the quinquennium preceding World War II.

INDO-CHINA

Table 3 gives the figures regarding the trade between India and Indo-China during 1911-40. Exports of opium from India to Indo-China date at least as far back as 1874-75. (cf. *Review of the Trade of India, 1874-75*, p. 26). From that time upto the end of the century opium exports continued to account for almost the whole of the export trade with that

country. Only after 1904-05 was its importance reduced to the second place by the exports of jute bags. From Table 3 it appears that opium exports were maintained at a considerably higher level during World War I than before. They declined sharply after the end of the war but revived quickly and continued to expand upto 1923-24. In the following year there was a marked decline but there was partial recovery during the next two years. From 1927-28 they were definitely on the downgrade and ceased completely after 1934-35. The decline of opium imports from India was due to the deliberate policy of the Government of India. The chief stages in the development of this policy were as follows:—Under an agreement with the Chinese Government in 1907 the Government of India undertook to reduce exports of opium to China by 10% every year. In 1913, i.e. before the scheduled time, the Government of India completely prohibited the export of opium to China. From 1915 onwards the opium auctions at Calcutta were restricted, and exports of opium to other countries were allowed only under permits issued by those Governments certifying that the opium was required for legitimate purposes. In 1925 the Government of India declared that exports even under such certificates were to be restricted in future. In 1926 the Viceroy made the announcement that the exports of opium for smoking would be progressively reduced so as to extinguish them altogether within a definite period.

Exports of jute gunny bags began at the turn of the century and within 3 to 4 years became the most important export item. Table 3 shows that exports rose considerably, in spite of large fluctuations, during World War I. They varied directly with the rise and fall of economic activity in the postwar boom and the following slump. From 1923 onwards they steadily expanded upto 1928-29. There was a slight fall in the following year and a still sharper one in the year following. They touched bottom in 1931-32 and there followed a halting recovery which became rapid after 1934-35 and during the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of World War II, exports of jute gunny bags continued, on an ave-

rage, at a level about 50% higher than the pre-depression peak level.⁸

Cotton twist and yarn used to be exported to Indo-China from Bombay for several years after the occupation of Tonkin.⁹ With the establishment there in the early years of this century of the cotton textile industry exports of cotton twist and yarn gave way to those of raw cotton. Local production of raw cotton being insufficient, Indo-China imported raw cotton from India, America and China. As early as 1910, the three spinning mills in Indo-China imported about 3,000 tons of cotton from British India.¹⁰ Raw cotton exports to Indo-China expanded after World War I and shot up to 7,798 tons in 1925-26. They were considerably uneven during the subsequent years but fell sharply to only 562 tons in 1932-33. They recovered during the succeeding year to 3,114 tons and averaged about 3,000 tons per year in the quinquennium ending 1937-38. They were considerably marked up during 1939-40 being 6,754 tons.

Imports from Indo-China were insignificant before and after the end of World War I; but with the beginning of rice imports in 1927-28 they registered an increase. During the interwar period India's need for imports of rice was continuously on the increase and imports of rice and paddy from Burma, as well as from Siam and Indo-China, increased. Rice imports from Indo-China were sharply marked up during 1928-29 but were quite moderately low in the following three or four years. Large scale imports from Indo-China and Siam began in 1934-35. They declined after the imposition of the import duty on rice, as described elsewhere.¹¹ Imports were again large in 1939-40 because the 1938-39 rice crop in India was very poor, being the smallest in the preceding nine

8. Robequain, *Economic Development of French Indo-China*, 1944, (p. 319). 'Jute fabric imports, mostly in the form of sacks, have increased parallel with agricultural exports—especially rice and corn...'

9. Op. cit. p. 280.

10. Op. cit, footnote p. 280.

11. See Siam, p. 12.

years. Imports from Burma during that year were also below the normal because of wartime dislocations.¹²

SIAM

Table 4 sets out the data regarding Indo-Siamese trade during 1911-42. Indian exports to Siam were largely confined to cotton manufactures, jute manufactures (gunny bags) and opium. Of these the last item, opium exports was recorded in the trade returns of 1870. The figures in the table show that exports of opium were fairly steady during 1917-1924. They declined slightly during the next three years but a sharp and continuous decline began in 1928-29 and from 1934 they ceased altogether. This was mainly due to the policy of the Government of India, which has been described above.

Jute gunny bags are being exported to Siam ever since the 'eighties of the last century. Since about the beginning of World War I it has been the largest item in the total exports. The table shows that exports of gunny bags to Siam increased from 6.1 million bags in 1912-13 to 13 million bags in the following year. This higher level was generally maintained during World War I. During 1918-21 exports fell. They increased to 15.9 million bags in 1921-22 and during the subsequent years upto 1926-7. they fluctuated around 10 and 11 million bags. With the coming of the depression they fell very sharply being only 4.0 million bags in 1930-31. But the recovery was quick and the earlier level was attained again during 1932-34. Exports increased substantially during the subsequent years.

Exports to Siam of Indian cotton twist and yarn began earlier than those of cotton piecegoods. The total exports of cotton manufactures occupied the third place in order of importance in the export trade upto 1934, but on the cessation of opium exports, they came to occupy the second place. From Table 4 it appears that the exports of cotton twist and yarn increased by a little less than 4 times during 1909-24.

12. *Review of the Trade of India, 1939-40*, p. 29.

From being 305,000 lbs. per year in the quinquennium preceding 1913-14 they increased to an average of 1,183,000 lbs. per year in the postwar quinquennium. They increased considerably in the subsequent period, fluctuating around 1·6 million lbs. upto 1929-30. During the subsequent years, there was a decline, the exports reaching 389,000 lbs. in 1936-37. This decline was partly due to the world depression and partly to Japanese competition. There was some recovery during the subsequent years, but they could not attain the average level of the post World War I years.

With occasional fluctuations the exports of cotton piece-goods continued to expand from 1911 to 1920. They were 5·7 million yards in 1919-20, and then declined, fluctuating around 2 million yards during 1922-23 and 1929-30. During the subsequent 3 years they sharply declined, reaching 497,000 yards in 1932-33. There was only a partial recovery during the subsequent years. Japanese competition and the world depression accounted for this.

India's main import from Siam is teak. It began regularly from the nineties of the last century. Imports increased very fast during the first decade of the 20th Century. In those days Siamese teak was said to be displacing Burma teak in India.¹³ During this period the imports increased ten-fold. The peak was attained in 1907-8 when the imports were about 58,000 cubic tons. There was a decline in subsequent years and they remained low during World War I. Imports showed a sizeable increase after the war, but they dwindled very considerably during subsequent years. The main reason for this decline appears to be the shortage of supply in Siam at the time due to overcutting in previous years.¹⁴ Imports of teak from Siam never recovered to their former levels after this. Preference duties were imposed on timber after

13. *Reviews of the Trade of India for 1902-03, 1903-04, etc.*

14. The Report of the Imperial Economic Committee on Timber in 1923 observed: 'Siam is at present a competitor, but we are informed that on account of overcutting in the past, supplies from that country are likely to be restricted' p. 21.

1933 under the Ottawa Agreement. Burma teak could compete advantageously with Siam teak in the Indian market, because it was duty free and had to pay less freight and successfully prevented the resumption of large scale teak imports from Siam.

Rice imports from Siam were first recorded in 1932-33. From about 57,000 tons in 1933-34 they increased to about 287,000 tons in the following year. The imports consisted largely of broken rice. Unusually large shipments of broken rice were received in 1934-35 from Siam and Indo-China, and Siamese and Indo-Chinese rice was being sold cheaper than locally produced rice in southern India. In order to prevent this the Government of India imposed a duty of 12 as. per maund on imports of broken rice with effect from April 1935. As a result imports dwindled during the subsequent years.¹⁵

[MALAYA] STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Trade statistics are available in regard to the Straits Settlements alone. The latter comprise the four small settlements of Singapore, Penang, Malacca and Labuan.

The volume of trade between India and the Straits Settlements, as revealed by the trade statistics, is very large, but most of it does not originate in or is destined for, the Straits. A large part of the trade is merely *entrepot* trade. "The Indian trade was a special aspect of Malaya's *entrepot* business, reaching westward as far as Jeddah and the other Red Sea ports. Like the China trade the India trade was to a large extent conditioned by the presence in Malaya of a large section of Indian immigrants. During the depression some Indian labour was repatriated and the trade suffered accordingly."¹⁶ Below, we shall deal with imports into India

15. Report on the Marketing of Rice in India and Burma, (Abridged Edition), 1942, p. 9-10.

16. F. V. Meyer, *Britain's Colonies in World Trade*, 1948, p. 255-6. The above remarks are based on para 38 of the Report of Straits Settlements Trade Commission.

originating in the Straits and exports from India consumed in the Straits.

Table 5 gives exports and imports of merchandise between India and the Straits during 1911-42. Of the imports into India from the Straits, tin, canes and rattanes, fish, fruits and vegetables (mainly coconut), lac and spices (betulnut) are products of the colony. Of these, tin is by far the most important. Tin imports into India from the Straits were recorded as early as 1874-75, and they have shown a steady increase since then. At the outbreak of World War I they amounted to 33,000 cwts. per year. During war years they fluctuated around 25,000 cwts. After the war, they increased and reached the peak at 64,000 cwts. in 1927-28. They declined as a result of the world depression touching 37,000 cwts. in 1933-34. There was a recovery in the following years and in 1939-40 imports amounted to 68,000 cwts.

Betulnuts are being imported from the Straits from the seventies of the last century. From 1911-12 the imports are remarkably steady. From an annual average of 110 million lbs. during 1911-20, they were around 85 million lbs. per year in the following two years and then again attained the former level. Except for a sharp fall to 87 million lbs. in 1927-28, they maintained this average level upto 1936-37, recording a sharp increase in the subsequent years. The other imports are insignificant in terms of volume and value and need not be dealt with in detail.

Of the exports from India the more significant items, meant in a large measure for consumption in the Straits, are cotton and jute manufactures. Rice exports mainly originated in Burma and need not engage us. Opium had been exported from India to the Straits from early days and it accounted for almost half the Indian trade with the Straits in the seventies of the last century.¹⁷ These exports ceased from 1923. Raw rubber exports mainly represented rubber produced in Burma and exported to the Straits. These exports increased almost steadily reach-

17. *Review of the Trade of India*, 1875-76, p. 17.

ing 9·4 million lbs. in 1936-37. With the separation of Burma they disappear from the trade statistics of India.

Both jute and cotton manufactures have been exported to the Straits from the 'seventies of the last century. Exports of cotton twist and yarn averaged 4,600,000 lbs. in the quinquennium ending 1916-17. They declined during the subsequent years, being only 830,000 lbs. in 1924-25. There was a slight recovery in the following years, but world depression again reduced them to between 500,000 to 700,000 lbs. per year. From 1933-34 there was an upturn and they continued to expand rapidly reaching 5,538,000 lbs. in 1938-39. There was a decline in the following years. Exports of cotton piecegoods also began as early as those of twist and yarn. In the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of World War I they averaged about 14 million yards. During the war they were pitched at a higher level and during the decade following the war they were remarkably steady, being around 20-25 million yards per year. From 1928-29 they showed a declining trend which was partly due to Japanese competition and partly, in later years, to the coming of the world depression. They touched the bottom in 1933-34 at 5·1 million yards. Then followed a recovery and in 1936-37 they touched 12·8 million yards. This was largely due to the restrictions placed on the Japanese and other non-empire textile imports in 1934 under the Quota Ordinance. During the next year they shot up to 24·4 million yards, probably because of the interruption of supplies from Japan on the outbreak of Sino-Japanese war in that year. They increased considerably after the outbreak of World War II and in 1941-42, amounted to 51·5 million yards.

Exports of jute manufactures to the Straits also began during the seventies of the last century. With the expansion of rubber exports the demand for jute bags and cloth also expanded, because 'about two-thirds of all Malaysian rubber was shipped in burlap bales weighing up 250 pounds each'.¹⁸ From 1911-12 to 1915-16 the exports of jute gunny bags showed a generally rising trend. Exports of jute cloth

18. Knorr, *World Rubber and its Regulation*, 1945, p. 41.

during 1911-19 showed a rising tendency, increasing from 216,000 yards in 1911-12 to 980,000 yards in 1918-19. In subsequent years exports of jute cloth declined sharply, being only 32,000 yards in 1924-25, but those of gunny bags revived after 1922-23, increasing from 5·3 million in that year to 16·3 million in 1926-27. Exports of cloth also increased and in 1927-28 amounted to 1 million yards. In the following years, while exports of gunny bags declined, those of cloth continued to increase, reaching the peak, with occasional fluctuations, at 20 million yards in 1937-38. They declined in the following two years, but increased again after the outbreak of World War II. Exports of gunny bags touched the bottom at 4·5 million in 1934-35 and slowly improved thereafter. They sharply fell after the outbreak of war. In 1941-42 they amounted to 3 million.

INDONESIA

Trade statistics regarding Indonesia as a whole are not available. They are available only for the two major areas of Indonesia, namely Java and Sumatra. These are presented in Table 6.

The import items from Java are sugar, tea and coffee; Sugar is by far the most important item, accounting for an overwhelming proportion of the total imports. They began as early as 1884-85¹⁹ and from that time up to 1912-13 increased continuously and rapidly. From modest beginnings sugar imports had increased to 97,458 cwts. in 1896-97 and during the next five years they increased more than three times, being 310,492 cwts. in 1901-02.²⁰ They continued to increase rapidly during the following years and by about 1908-09 as many tons were being imported into India from Java as hundredweights in 1901-02. In 1913-14 imports amounted to 670,000 tons. World War I reduced them sharply. Till 1920-21 they were pitched at a lower level than before, the average of imports during the seven years preceding 1920-21 being

19. Cf. *Review of the Trade of India*, 1884-85.

20. *Review of the Trade of India*, 1901-2, p. 5.

about 350,000 tons. From 1921-22 onwards imports again increased. In 1930-31 they amounted to 911,000 tons.²¹

But the situation on both sides changed radically after 1931-32. From 1 April, 1932, the Government of India imposed a protective duty of Rs. 9-1-0 per cwt. on imported sugar. The grant of protection stimulated the growth of the Indian sugar industry, and the production of cane factory sugar increased from 69,000 tons in 1931-32 to 406,000 tons in 1936-37. Imports declined correspondingly. By 1936-37 they had declined to 15,000 tons. The sugar industry in Java was also experiencing considerable difficulties. It was dependent on the free foreign markets for disposing of four-fifths of its production. When the U. S. A., U. K., India, Japan closed their markets, partially or wholly to Java sugar. Stocks of sugar in Java accumulated ; in 1932 they amounted to 2.5 million tons. The Government then intervened. Sugar production was severely restricted. The area under sugarcane in Java and Madura was brought down to 32,146 hectares in 1935.²² This resulted in a great loss of income to the native population from 138 million guilders to a little over 10 million guilders a year.²³

Imports of tea into India from Java began before World War I and from 72,000 lbs. in 1911-12 increased after fluctuating to 4.1 million lbs. in 1928-29. They declined thereafter very precipitously and after 1932-33 became quite insignificant. The Java teas were cheap quality teas used mainly as "fillers" or make-weights for Indian tea the production of which was low, partly because of bad weather conditions and partly because of the voluntary restriction of production by Indian producers. The cheapness of Java teas and the low production at home helped the imports of Java teas in continuously increasing quantities during this period. The decline in 1929-30 and 1930-31 was probably due to the depression. The Inter-

21. During 1921-30 sugarcane production in Java also increased steadily until it had reached an all-time peak of about 2,00,000 hectares during 1925-29. Karl J. Pelzer, *An Economic Survey of the Pacific Area*, I.P.R., 1941, p. 156.

22. Pelzer, op. cit.

23. Boek, *The Evolution of the Netherlands Indies Economy*, I.P.R., 1946, p. 40.

national Tea Agreement concluded by India, Ceylon, and Netherlands East Indies, in 1933 restricted exports, production, etc. of tea.

Liquor is also imported from Java in small quantities. It began to be imported in larger quantities after World War I. The imports increased almost progressively to 1,068,000 gallons in 1931-32, after which they declined. Coffee is imported in very small quantities from Java and need not be commented upon here.

The main item of import from Sumatra is kerosene oil, the imports of which began by about 1894. They had increased considerably upto the beginning of World War I, amounting to 4,900,000 gallons in 1912-13, but received a sharp set back during the war. From 1919 to 1930 they fluctuated rather violently because imports of mineral oil from the U. S. A. and Burma during this period dominated the Indian market. After 1930 imports from Sumatra, though fluctuating, showed considerable expansion.

The three main export items to Java and Sumatra are rice, opium and jute. Rice exports were mainly from Burma which formed a part of India and they completely disappeared after her separation in 1936-37. They need not engage us here. Opium exports to Java are recorded in the trade statistics of the seventies of the last century. In the decade 1911-20 they generally varied between 2,000 and 4,000 cwts. annually. After 1922-23 they were pitched at a lower level and showed a declining tendency. After 1931-32 they ceased completely, for reasons indicated elsewhere.

The exports of jute gunny bags to Java also began quite early. They directly varied with the export trade of Java; fluctuated around 19 million bags during World War I rose and fell in the postwar boom and slump but showed a general upward trend in the following years, mounting to 41·6 million bags in 1930-31. There followed a sharp reduction as Java's export trade shrank under the impact of the world depression. In 1934-35 they amounted to only 9·8 million bags. A recovery followed and in 1938-39 they amounted to 23·3 million bags.

CHINA

The commercial relations between India and China extend over many centuries but the total quantum of trade between them was not very large until recent times. During the nineteenth century Sino-Indian trade did not show an upward trend. Reviewing the trade over the 25 year period ending 1892-93, the *Review of the Trade of India* for that year observed : 'The truth indeed is that our trade with China has been of a non-progressive character and that its growth has been smaller than that of our trade with almost any other country. The imports from that country are small, and as regards tea they do not carry any specific advantage to this country, for this is for the most part brought to India for re-shipment to the Persian Gulf or across the frontier to markets which ought to be supplied with our own tea. In exports from India we find that the trade in raw cotton, which formerly was extensive, apparently approaching extinction and the value of opium trade seriously diminished. The only other article exported which is worth mentioning is cotton yarn and the development of that trade alone has saved the trade with China from falling very materially below the level of a quarter of a century ago'.²⁴

Table 7 gives figures regarding the trade between India and China during 1911-42. Among imports from China into India the more important are tea, raw silk, cotton yarn and piecegoods. Till the last quarter of the 19th century China was the main supplier of tea in the world. With the growth of tea plantations in India and Ceylon, Chinese exports declined.²⁵ As early as 1874-75 the *Review of the Trade of India* noted that 'the falling off in the imports of tea from China is the natural result of the increased consumption of the leaf

24. p. 42.

25. Wickizer, *Tea under International Regulation*, (p. 32). "Chinese tea exports reached their peak, about 295 million pounds, in 1886; in 1889 they had declined to 225 million pounds; during 1909-13 they averaged 199 million; and in 1928-32 they had taken to the average level of 105 million pounds."

grown in India'.²⁶ Most of the tea imported into India from China was meant for re-shipment to Persian Gulf, etc. Towards the close of the century even this trade appeared to be dwindling. *The Review of the Trade of India for 1898-99* observed : 'Importance of tea has fallen to a very low level. That portion of the tea which was intended for export to Persia and Trans-Caspian provinces of Russia having been driven away by the subsidized competitions of the Russian voluntary fleet, aiding the natural advantages of the Colombo route, and by the fiscal laws of Russia and Afghanistan. This trade is doubtless permanently lost.'²⁷

The imports of tea into India from China consisted mostly of green tea. In the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of World War I they annually averaged about 2·5 million lbs. During the war they ruled at a slightly higher level, being on an average about 3 million lbs. per year. In the period following, imports increased considerably because of successive bad tea crops in India. They reached the peak at 10·4 million lbs. in 1923-24. There was a steady decline thereafter. In the quinquennium ending 1935-36, they averaged 2·6 million lbs. annually. The declining trend continued in the following two years.

India has imported raw and manufactured silk from China since ancient times. Exports of Chinese raw silk showed a declining tendency since the beginning of the 20th century, mainly because of the growing Japanese competition. During World War I imports of raw silk from China into India showed a decline, falling from about 1·8 million lbs. in 1913-14 to about 864,000 lbs. in 1918-19. During the following quinquennium they averaged 1·4 million lbs. per year. There followed a rise and in 1929-30 they amounted to about 2 million lbs. In the next few years they continued to rule high but declined sharply in 1935-36 to about 0·5 million lbs. There was a rise thereafter and in 1940-41 they were about 1·4 million lbs.

26. p. 23.

27. p. 60.

The imports of cotton yarn and piecegoods from China began on a small scale before World War I, and with the development of Chinese textile industry they increased considerably during and after the war.

From 1870 to 1905, India supplied yarn to China in increasing quantities. The position was reversed with the growth of Chinese textile industry. In the quinquennium preceding World War I the imports of cotton twist and yarn from China averaged 15,000 lbs annually and those of cotton piecegoods, 798,000 yards. During the war and the following quinquennium, imports of twist and yarn increased to 214,000 lbs., and 537,000 lbs. respectively, while those of cotton piecegoods increased to 892,000 yards and 2,368,000 yards respectively.²⁸ Imports of yarn showed a rising trend thereafter, but from 1927-28 to 1935-36 they were remarkably stable, fluctuating between 10 and 13 million lbs. annually. There was later a drop to 0.5 million lbs. followed by a rise. In 1927 a specific duty of 1½ annas per lb. on all imported yarn was levied. If the value was in excess of Rs. 1-14-0 the duty was fixed at 5% ad valorem. Imports of cotton piecegoods showed an increase with occasional fluctuations, and in 1928-29 amounted to 13·4 million yards. During this period the Indian textile industry was depressed mainly because of Japanese competition and the high rupee exchange, as well as the loss of the yarn export market in China. Imports of Chinese cotton piecegoods fell sharply from 4 million yards in 1931-32 to 7,00,000 yards in the next year; and they declined very considerably in the succeeding years, amounting to only 8,000 yards in 1938-39. In 1931 a protective duty of 20% was imposed on imports of cotton piecegoods of non-British origin into India. In September, 1931, a surcharge of 25% was imposed on all imported cotton goods. In August, 1932, the duty on cotton piecegoods imports was increased to 50%, sub-

28. In China 'between 1915 and 1920 the number of cotton mills doubled, the spindlage increased by nearly 50% and looms more than doubled in quantity'. Hubbard, *Eastern Industrialization and its effect on the West*, 1935.

ject to a minimum of a specific duty of $5\frac{1}{4}$ annas per lb. on plain grey goods. In 1933 the duty was increased to 75%, with a minimum of $6\frac{1}{2}$ annas per lb. on plain grey piecegoods. The imposition of these protective duties was in a large measure responsible for the shrinkage in the imports of cotton piecegoods from China during this period.

Among exports from India to China the most important are: jute and cotton manufactures, tea and raw cotton. During the last century opium was exported to China in large quantities and formed the major item in exports to that country. As noted by the *Review of the Trade of India* for 1892-93, the exports of opium to China during the preceding 25 years showed a declining trend. This was partly due to the spread of opium cultivation in China and partly also to high taxes imposed on imported opium in China.²⁹ Exports of opium to China ceased completely after 1914-15. This was the result of a vigorous movement against opium cultivation in China. An edict was issued in 1906 ordering the prohibition of opium smoking in China within ten years. A provisional agreement was concluded between the British and the Chinese Governments in 1907, under which the import of Indian opium into China was to be reduced as cultivation was stopped within the country. In May, 1911, this was replaced by a convention which increased the consolidated duty upon opium to 350 Haikwan taels per picul, fixed the domestic excise on opium at the same rate and provided for the abolition of the import trade by the close of the year 1917.³⁰

Cotton manufactures and cotton piecegoods form only a small part of the exports and need not be discussed at length. The tale of the rise and fall of twist and yarn exports to China is dramatic. Exports of yarn to China steadily expanded from 1870-71; they expanded, in terms of value, from Rs. 38,037 in 1868-69 to Rs. 6,290,561 in 1892-93.³¹ In 1885-86 exports of yarn amounted to 68.5 million lbs. They increased, almost

29. Remer, *The Foreign Trade of China*, 1926, p. 89.

30. op. cit., p. 156.

31. *Review of the Trade of India*, 1892-93, p. 42.

without a break, in 1899-1900 to 231 million lbs. The increase was largely at the cost of Lancashire twist which lost its market to Indian twist. The *Review of the Trade of India* for 1886-87 noted, 'India exports to China about 50% more yarn than England sends to China. In fact the exports of yarn from England to China and to India put together are smaller than the exports of yarn from India to China.'³² This was possible because of the relative cheapness of Indian yarn in the Chinese market, as compared with that from Lancashire.³³

During the last decade of the 19th century the cotton textile industry in Japan began to develop rapidly and soon Japanese yarn began to compete with Indian yarn in the China market. Imports of Japanese cotton yarn into China increased from 2 million taels in 1896 to 10 million taels in 1898.³⁴ After reaching a considerable total in 1899 the imports of Japanese yarn into China 'did not increase in comparison with imports from India until after 1908. From 1908-13, however, imports from Japan increased and imports from India declined. At the end of the period the direct imports from Japan were about equal to direct imports from India.'³⁵ Chinese textile industry also began to develop with the turn of the century and, as noted earlier, it developed very fast during 1915-20. From 66.6 million lbs. in 1919-20 exports of twist and yarn to China from India fell to 1 million lbs. in 1923-24 and to 22,000 lbs. in 1929-30. After a more or less complete absence for some

32. p. 28.

33. *Review of the Trade of India*, 1886-87, 'In both China and Japan, the competition of Bombay with Lancashire twist is increasingly successful. Some attribute the success to the operation of the exchange but this is very doubtful. Better reasons can be found in the intrinsic merits of the article and its adaptability to the purposes for which Chinamen and Japanese require twist and in fact the raw material has no long freight charges to pay between the field and the mill and that the freight of the twist from Bombay is lower than from Liverpool to say nothing of the labour by which it is made being cheaper. With or without a low exchange, it may confidently be said that the Bombay spinner has natural advantages of a very substantial character over the Lancashire spinner when the two compete in the markets of China.' (p. 28).

34. Remer, op. cit. p. 93.

35. op. cit., p. 152.

years they revived in 1936-37, amounting in 1938-39 to 682,000 lbs. The later decline was probably due to the interference with domestic production because of the outbreak of Sino-Japanese war in 1937.

Raw cotton exports to China were quite high during the first three years of World War I. But in the inter war period they ruled at a low level. Exports of jute and jute manufactures also were of a small magnitude in the same period.

Exports of tea to China, consisting mostly of black tea, averaged 7·9 million lbs. in the quinquennium preceding World War I. During the war the annual average was 8 million lbs. In the following quinquennium they fell precipitously, averaging only 23,000 lbs. per year. This was possibly because of the short crops in India during that period. In the following years exports revived, but were subject to violent fluctuations. The peak of the period was attained in 1928-29 at 6·1 million lbs. a year in which Chinese domestic production was small, due to internal political unsettlement. Exports remained low in the following years and were almost insignificant after 1933, the years in which the International Tea Regulation Scheme came into operation.

JAPAN

The trade between India and Japan was small in the 'seventies of the last century, being confined to imports of copper from Japan and export of cotton, twist and yarn from India. But in the course of time it grew in volume and during 1884-89 it was reported to have increased four times over in terms of value.³⁶ This increase was attributed mainly to the increase in the exports of twist and yarn from India, which increased from 6,900,000 lbs. in 1884-85 to 23,100,000 lbs. in 1888-89. Towards the end of the century a radical transformation in the composition of Indo-Japanese trade took place. Indian exports of twist and yarn dwindled to insignificance, but those of raw cotton increased very considerably. This is indicated by the following figures.

36. *Review of the Trade of India, 1888-9*, p. 17.

EXPORTS TO JAPAN FROM INDIA

(Source—*Review of the Trade of India*)

Year	Cotton (Raw)	Cotton (Yarn)
	cwts.	lbs.
1887-88	125	17,391,646
88-89	390	23,143,460
89-90	60,837	22,686,714
90-91	77,757	11,876,422
91-92	400,952	6,682,050
92-93	444,000	7,351,000
93-94	368,000	5,768,000
94-95	465,000	2,613,000
95-96	856,000	1,208,000
96-97	1,499,000	635,000
97-98	1,311,000	354,000

This transformation was a reflection of the rapid growth of textile industry in Japan. As Japanese industrialization continued apace imports of numerous manufactured goods from Japan to India came in increasing quantities. Table 8 shows the exports and imports between India and Japan during 1911-40.

Textiles—cotton yarn, piecegoods, hosiery, woollen and silk manufactures—form the major part of imports from Japan into India. Of these cotton manufactures are important. In the quinquennium preceding World War I, India annually imported on an average 3·1 million yards of cotton piecegoods from Japan. During the war period the average increased to 54 million yards per year, because the European, particularly English, sources of supply were cut off. During the following quinquennium the average went up to 113·4 million yards per year. In the following years they continued to increase apace and attained the peak at 561·0 million yards in 1929-30. Two factors were mainly responsible for this—the depreciation of the yen and what was described as the relatively “inferior labour conditions in Japan”, namely the system of double shift and the inferior conditions of labour there in respect of homes and the employment of women and juveniles

at night. The advantage of the latter factor to Japan was estimated at 4% of the cost of producing yarn and cloth by the Indian Tariff Board.³⁷

In April, 1930, the revenue duty on piecegoods was raised by the Government of India from 11 to 15% *ad valorem*, coupled with an additional protective duty of 5% on all cotton goods imported from countries other than the U. K., with a minimum specific duty of 3½ annas per lb. on plain grey goods produced in any foreign country. In 1931, the surcharges imposed by the Finance Act and the Emergency Budget increased the *ad valorem* rates on piecegoods to 25% on British and 31¼% on non-British goods, with equivalent increases in the specific duties on grey goods. These duties, however, could reduce the imports of Japanese piecegoods only temporarily, because simultaneously the Japanese yen was depreciating and cancelling the handicaps to Japanese goods imposed by these duties. In 1932 the yen depreciated steeply from 20·07d. per yen to about 14d. This enabled Japan to export to India piecegoods at inordinately low prices and imports during 1932-33 increased to 580·0 million yards. The Indian Tariff Board recommended that to counteract this exchange depreciation, the duty on piecegoods of non-British origin be raised from 31¼% to 50% *ad valorem* the minimum specific duty on plain grey goods being raised to 5¼ annas per lb. This was accepted by the Government of India, but by the time the duties came into force the yen had depreciated still further. In June, 1933, the Government of India increased the *ad valorem* duty to 75% and the specific duty to 6½ annas per lb. Shortly after this the Indo-Japanese Trade Convention of 1904 was revoked by the Government of India.

In retaliation, the Japanese boycotted Indian raw cotton. Eventually, however, both parties negotiated and signed the Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement of 1934. Under this agreement mutual favoured nation treatment was assured. The duties on Japanese goods were not to exceed 50% *ad valorem*, or 5½ annas per lb., which ever was higher for plain greys,

37. *Report of the Indian Tariff Board regarding the Grant of Protection to the Cotton Textile Industry, 1932*, p. 2.

and in the case of other piecegoods 50%. The right to levy anti-exchange dumping duties and to impose and modify duties even otherwise was reserved by both Governments. A system of quotas for imports of Japanese cloth into India, in exchange for the export of cotton to Japan from India, was provided. Under this provision Japan was allowed to export to India in any cotton goods year (April 1 to March 31) 325 million yards of cloth, provided she purchased one million cotton bales from India in any cotton year (January 1 to December 31). Apart from this basic quota the maximum quantity of Japanese imports was fixed at 400 million yards a year; and the excess over the basic quota was related to cotton at 1½ million yards for every 10,000 bales of cotton. The allotment of cotton piece-goods imported from Japan was further classified under four heads. Plain greys 45%; bordered greys 13%; bleached (white) goods 34%.³⁸ The agreement was renewed for a further period of 3 years in 1937. Imports of Japanese piece-goods in the following years were pitched at a level lower than that of 1932.

The export of Indian yarn to Japan and its decline have been noted earlier. Imports of Japanese yarn in the quinquennium before World War I averaged 460,000 lbs. annually. The average increased to 7,420,000 lbs. during the war and to 16,790,000 lbs. in the following quinquennium. Imports continued to be high thereafter, but fell sharply after 1926. In that year, a specific duty of 1½ annas per lbs. was imposed on all imported yarn, unless the value was in excess of Re. 1-14-0, in which case the duty was fixed at 5% *ad valorem*. In 1928-29 imports of yarn amounted to 7,630,000 lbs. In the next year they rose to 10,870,000 lbs. but declined again in the following two years. In September, 1931, an additional surcharge of 25% of the duty on yarn imports was imposed, but because of the depreciation of the yen imports increased to 18,149,000 lbs. in 1932-33. They declined to 11,680,000 lbs. in the following year and during the following quinquennium they averaged 16,680,000 lbs. annually.

38. *Review of the Trade of India, 1933-4, Appendix I, p. 167-170.*

Imports of raw silk from Japan were relatively quite insignificant quantitatively up to the end of World War I, They rose in the post-war period, amounting to 75,000 lbs. in 1924-25. They fluctuated considerably during the subsequent years and were marked down to 37,000 lbs. in 1929-30 and to 17,000 lbs. in the year following. In 1932-33 they suddenly leaped to 165,000 lbs. In the following years they went on increasing rapidly, reaching 1,625,000 lbs. in 1935-36. There was a small falling off in the following two years and sharp fall in 1938-39, imports amounting to 274,000 lbs. only. The increase in imports of raw silk since 1931-32 was due mainly to the exchange advantage enjoyed by Japanese products, because of the depreciation of the yen.³⁹ In 1934 a 25% *ad valorem* duty on raw silk imports, combined with a specific duty of 14 annas per lb., was levied by the Government of India.

Imports of silk piece goods from Japan averaged 20·1 million yards per year in the triennium ending 1913-14. There was a decline during the war and after, the annual average imports during the war and the following quinquennium being 14·6 million and 11·0 million yards respectively. They continued to rule low during the next few years but began to increase after 1925-26 reaching the peak at 13·4 million yards in 1929-30. They declined sharply to 7·8 million yards in the following year but increased very rapidly in the subsequent years to 26·8 million yards in 1932-33 and to 34·3 million yards in the year following. There was a decline in the following years. The rise in imports was mainly attributable to the depreciation of the yen referred to earlier and the help given by Japanese government in regard to these exports. In 1934 the Government of India imposed a 25% *ad valorem* duty on imported silk yarn, thrown silk and wraps, a duty of 25% on spun silk yarn coils, 65% *ad valorem* duty on silk piecegoods; varying duties ranging from 25% (or 3 annas, whichever was higher) per lb., and 50% *ad valorem* in silk

39. *Report of the Indian Tariff Board regarding the Grant of Protection to the Sericultural Industry, 1934*, p. 143-4.

mixtures. The then existing revenue duty of 18½% on artificial silk yarn was raised to 25%, or 3 annas per lb., whichever was higher.⁴⁰ These measures only partially succeeded in reducing the imports of silk manufactures from Japan.

Imports of woollen piecegoods from Japan were of small magnitude upto 1930-31. They had been rather high during World War I. In the four years ending 1927-28 they averaged 1·4 million lbs. per year, but sharply declined subsequently. With the progressive depreciation of the yen imports increased to 1·4 million lbs. in 1932-33 and leaped up to 6·9 million lbs. in 1934-35. There was a decline thereafter and they ruled at a lower level during the subsequent four years, the annual average being 2·9 million lbs.

The textiles group discussed so far accounted before World War II for about half the total imports from Japan in terms of value. Other items of imports are numerous and, individually, of small significance. They can, therefore, be briefly discussed. Decrease in the imports of glassware is particularly noticeable from 1922-23, mainly because of competition from Czechoslovakia. Of the imports of metal, those of copper declined after World War I, largely because of Japanese own growing needs, as well as the development of other sources, such as Canada, Chile and the U.S.A. Japanese matches first appeared in India by about 1893-94 and imports increased apace upto the end of World War I. In the interwar period, partly because of the monopolistic activities of the Swedish Match Company, and partly because of the inferior and uneven quality of the Japanese product, as also protection afforded to the Indian match industry in 1938, these were reduced to insignificance. It may be noted that, generally speaking Japanese imports consisted of manufactured goods, such as cotton, silk and woollen textiles, drugs and medicines, glass and glassware, hardware, machinery and mill work, rubber manufactures, cutlery, stationery, toys, bobbins, cycles and cycle parts, clocks and watches, etc.

Exports of raw cotton form a major proportion of the

40. Report of the Indian Tariff Board regarding the Grant of Protection to the Sericultural Industry, 1940, p. 37-9.

exports from India to Japan. It has been noted above that the exports of raw cotton to Japan began during the last decade of the nineteenth century. From the turn of the century till recently Japan has been the most important customer of Indian cotton. In the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of World War I, Japan took, on an average, one million bales of Indian cotton annually. This average increased to 1·4 million bales during the war and to 1·5 million bales during the quinquennium following the war. During the next few years the consumption of Indian cotton in Japan declined. According to the Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau 'Upto 1926 Indian cotton was imported in far greater volume than American, but with the progress of rationalization the consumption of American cotton greatly increased.'⁴¹ Between 1929-30 and 1933-34 Japan, on an average, bought about 43% of the total Indian exports of cotton as compared with 53% during the preceding decade. This represented a reduction in the total quantity bought, the decline being due in some measure to the world depression but in larger measure to the boycott of Indian cotton by Japanese millers as a retaliation against Indian tariff discrimination (noted earlier). Following the Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement the exports of cotton to Japan increased.

Exports of raw cotton to Japan were mostly of the short staple variety from the beginning. 'The percentage of short staple cotton exports to Japan, for which figures are available from 1933 onwards, was around 70 during 1933-34 to 1935-36. In 1936-37 Japanese purchases of Indian long and medium staple cotton exceeded those of the previous year, by about 167,000 bales and the percentage of the short staple in the total dropped to 57'.⁴² This increase was due to the cheaper prices of Indian long and medium staples, as compared with similar American varieties. During the following year, when the price factor was favourable to the American cottons, 84% of the total exports of Indian raw cotton to Japan consisted of short staples. During 1938-39 this percentage dropped to 70.

41. *Japanese Trade and Industry*, 1936, p. 236.

42. N. V. Sovani, *International Position of India's Raw Materials*, 1948, p. 32.

There are numerous other items of export, but they are all quantitatively not very significant and, therefore, might be briefly commented upon. The exports of rice, as shown in the table, were largely derived from Burma, and with the separation of the latter—actually even before that—they had dwindled into insignificance. Iron and steel exports, consisting mostly of pig iron and steel scrappings, increased considerably after 1922-23. In 1929-30 they amounted to 419,000 tons. There was a drop in the following years and the 1929 level was touched and exceeded only in 1935-36. In 1938-39 exports were particularly heavy, being 789,000 tons. Raw jute exports have all along been insignificant. So also are the exports of jute manufactures and hides and skins. Exports of manganese ore to Japan averaged 12,000 tons during World War I, but declined very considerably during the following years. Subsequently, they revived, rising, during 1929-30 and 1933-34 to an average of 30,000 tons per year. During the next five years this average went up to 140,000 tons. As compared with only a negligible percentage during the quinquennium following World War I Japanese, share of the total Indian exports of manganese ore increased to 21% in the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of World War II.

PHILIPPINES

The volume of trade between India and the Philippine Islands has always been small. Table 9 gives figures regarding Indian exports to and India's imports from, the Philippines during 1911-42.

The imports of cordage and rope recorded a sudden increase in 1926-27 and in the years following they ruled at a higher level than before 1926-27. The U. S. A. was for many years the chief market for Philippine cordage, but during the thirties U. S. imports of cordage declined and those of other countries increased.⁴³ India also shared in this increase.

43. 'Countries other than the U. S. have taken more than 50% of the quantity of cordage exported from the Philippines'. Joint Preparatory Committee on Philippines Affairs, Vol. I. From 1935 cordage imports into U. S. were restricted because of the quota limitations imposed by the Cordage Act.

Imports of raw hemp are of small magnitude and show no marked trends. Imports of tobacco are also on a small scale. After remaining low during 1921-30 they suddenly rose in 1931-32 to 149,000 lbs. declined during the following year and since 1933-34 have ruled at a much lower level than before 1931. Tobacco imports consisted mostly of cigars and cigarettes. The progressive decline in cigar consumption in India and the upward revision of import duty on cigarettes in 1934 partly account for this decline.

The main item of export to the Philippines was jute manufactures. The quantities involved are small and fluctuate with the cyclical rise and fall of economic activity. Exports of linseed oil, lac and wax are insignificantly small and need not be commented upon.

AUSTRALIA

Indo-Australian trade began roughly towards the middle of the last century, but has been confined to a few important items only. Table 10 gives the figures regarding India's exports to Australia and Australian imports into India during 1911-1942. In the 19th century India used to import copper and gold from Australia. The copper imports consisted of cast copper and began sometime in the 'sixties of the last century.⁴⁴

The following items appear among imports; coal, steel, horses, railway material, wheat and raw wool. Of these the last two are the more significant. Wheat imports from Australia, it appears, were substantial only in certain years—usually years of poor wheat crop in India.⁴⁵ During World War II Australia supplied to India the bulk of the latter's wheat imports.

44. *The Review of the Trade of India for 1874-75* records that the decline of copper imports from Australia since 1869-70 was due to the diversion of Australian copper to England, because of the high prices ruling there. (p. 27). Again the *Review of the Trade of India* for 1888-89 records that the decline of copper imports during 1884-89 was the direct result of the operations of the Copper Syndicate and that since its fall the imports had resumed, p. 16.

45. *The Report on the Marketing of Wheat in India* observes in this connexion:—Australia provides nearly all the imported supplies, and there is naturally an incentive to import when Indian prices are sufficiently high to make it worth while. (p. 2).

India imports from Australia high quality wool, which is not produced domestically, mainly for consumption by the Indian woollen mills. Indian woollen industry was not much developed before World War I, but it received a stimulus during the War, and consumption of Australian wool increased considerably. In 1923-24 imports of wool amounted to more than 1·7 million lbs. They dropped sharply during 1925-27, but increased thereafter, and during 1931-35 averaged 2·6 million lbs. per year. This was in spite of the growing competition from Japanese woollen textiles which had developed since 1925. The depreciation of the yen helped to aggravate the competition between Indian and Japanese woollen textiles. In 1935, as per the recommendations of the Indian Tariff Board, a 77% import duty on woollen textile imports into India (40% for general protection against all countries including Japan, and 37% to compensate for the exchange advantage to Japan) was imposed. The Indian woollen textile industry expanded considerably under protection and imports of Australian wool in the quinquennium following the grant of protection averaged about 4·3 million per year. They expanded considerably during the following quinquennium (first five years of World War II) and in 1943-44 the imports from Australia amounted to 23·6 million lbs.

India exports to Australia jute bags and cloth, linseed and castor oil, tea, seeds and hides and skins. Of these the first three are important. Rice exported to Australia mainly originated in Burma and need not be considered.

Jute bags and jute cloth exports began as far back as the 'seventies of the last century. Australia is an important buyer of Indian jute manufactures. Surveying the trends in this respect from the beginning of the 20th century upto the outbreak of World War I, Prof. R. M. Joshi remarked ; 'The best customer throughout the period was Australia, which took about 20% of the annual exports. The attempts made by that country in latter years of importing gunny cloth and making bags for itself behind a tariff wall have not so far checked its imports of bags'.⁴⁶ Exports, during the World

46. *Indian Export Trade*, 1922, p. 114.

War I were marked up but during the first postwar years they fell sharply. There followed a recovery, and exports of jute bags and cloth, with occasional fluctuations, continued to rule at higher levels. The world depression reduced them temporarily for about a year. Upto the outbreak of World War II they ruled at a slightly lower level than that prevailing before the depression of 1929-30. Exports of jute cloth were, however, marked up. Both exports continued to rule high during World War II.

Vegetable oil exports, to Australia are recorded as early as 1874-75. *The Review of the Trade of India* for 1896-97 recorded that the exports of linseed oil to Australia was of recent origin and showed a rising tendency.⁴⁷ Castor oil was also exported. But later on these exports declined. The exports of vegetable oil, mainly linseed, show a sharp decline from 1919-20. The exports of seeds were considerably marked up during and after World War I. They decreased during the depressions and, though they recorded a recovery afterwards, they registered a significant increase only after the outbreak of World War II.

Though Indian teas have been exported to Australia for over 80 years, the Australian tea market has showed a marked preference for Ceylon and Netherlands East Indies teas. Tea exports to Australia were slightly marked down during World War I, declined further thereafter and continued to be low upto the 3rd year of World War II. After World War I the competition of teas from the Netherlands East Indies increased considerably. When, during World War II, N. E. Indies were occupied by the Japanese Australia turned in India for tea and imported considerable quantities.

NEW ZEALAND

Table 11 gives figures regarding the trade between India and New Zealand during 1911-42. The main export item from India to New Zealand was jute manufactures. Exports of gunny bags during World War I averaged around 8·5 million

47. p. 68.

per year. They fluctuated during the following quinquennium but from 1925-26 till 1930-31 they were remarkably steady around 10 and 11 million bags annually. They fell sharply to 6.1 million bags in 1931-32 and recovered slowly during the following years. In 1938-39 they amounted to 13.1 million bags, increasing to 16.6 million in 1939-40 and further to 20.8 million in the following year. Then followed a decline. Exports of jute cloth fluctuated widely during and after World War I. From 1924-25 to 1932-33 they fluctuated between 3 and 4 million yards per year, and from 1933-34 to 1938-39 between 4 and 5 million yards per year. They increased during World War II amounting to 9.2 million yards in 1940-41. Exports of tea to New Zealand amounted to a few hundred thousand lbs. annually till 1931-32. In that year they shot up to a million lbs. reaching 2.5 million lbs. in 1933-34. Then they fell and reached the old levels. In 1941-42 they were again very large, being 1.1 million lbs. Exports of castor oil to New Zealand were quite large till 1918-19 fluctuating between 150,000 and 300,000 gallons per year. In 1921-22 they were very sharply reduced to 20,000 gallons. They continued to rule low in subsequent years and from 1926-27 till the outbreak of World War II they never exceeded 36,000 gallons in any year. They increased during the war and shot up to 270,000 gallons in 1940-41.

Imports from New Zealand to India consist of small miscellaneous items. From 1929-30 raw wool has been imported into India from New Zealand but these imports were significantly large only in some years and amounted to only a few thousand lbs. during others. They increased remarkably during World War II mounting 11.6 million lbs. in 1940-41. They were reduced in the following two years to around 2.5 million lbs. annually.

The trade facts and trends during the period in regard to the various countries may here be usefully summarised in broad terms. The South-East Asian countries are dealt with first and those of the Far East later. India exported to Ceylon foodgrains, fodder, manure, cotton piecegoods and jute manufactures and received from it coconut products, particularly

coconut oil, raw rubber and tea. Burma imported from India cotton textiles, jute manufactures and vegetable oils and exported to her rice, mineral oil, nonferrous metals and teak wood. Indo-China imported from India opium, cotton twist and yarn and jute manufactures formerly. Opium imports dwindled and vanished in the course of time. The imports of Indian twist and yarn also declined with the growth of competition from Chinese and Japanese textiles. This decline was compensated to some extent by the growth of the imports of Indian raw cotton into Indo-China. Imports of jute manufactures since the beginning of this century continued uninterrupted. India imported rice from 1928 onwards. Siam imported from India opium, twist and yarn and jute manufactures. Opium imports later declined and imports of twist and yarn and cotton piecegoods also suffered because of Japanese competition. Imports of jute manufactures remained comparatively steady. Exports from Siam to India in the old days consisted mainly of teak. These declined because of the growing competition of Burma teak. Exports of rice began after 1932-33 and were, at intervals, quite heavy. Malaya imported opium, cotton twist and yarn—and later piecegoods,—and jute manufactures from India. Exports of opium to Malaya declined in the course of time. India imported cane, betelnuts, tin and rubber from Malaya. To Indonesia India sent twist and yarn—and later cotton piecegoods,—and jute manufactures and received from her sugar, coffee and tea. With the growth of Indian sugar industry under protection during the thirties sugar imports from Indonesia were reduced to insignificance.

India used to have a big market for her opium and twist and yarn in China. The exports of opium declined and vanished during the period under review as a result of the deliberate policy of the governments in both the countries. The growth of Chinese textile industry reduced the exports of Indian twist and yarn. India received from China raw and manufactured silk and of late years cotton twist and yarn. China used to export tea to India, but these exports gradually dwindled and vanished as Indian tea industry developed and

expanded. In recent times India has been exporting tea to China in small quantities, and of late, China has also provided some market for Indian raw cotton.

India used to export to Japan considerable quantities of cotton twist and yarn till the 'nineties of the last century and to import silk and copper from her. With the rapid growth and development of Japanese industry, exports of twist and yarn vanished. So also did the exports of copper from Japan to India. Japan became the largest single buyer of Indian raw cotton at the turn of the century. She also imported raw jute from India and, during the thirties, increasing quantities of manganese ore. India imported from Japan cotton, silk and woollen textiles, hardware, toys, cycles, etc.

To Philippines India sent jute manufactures and received in return cordage, hemp and tobacco products. Jute manufactures were exported to Australia, and during World War II cotton piecegoods and tea have also been exported to her from India. India imported from Australia wheat and wool. Before World War II Australian wheat was imported only in those years when the Indian wheat crop was low but since the end of the war, wheat imports have been regular and large in quantity. The main export to New Zealand has been jute manufactures, and India has received only small quantities of miscellaneous articles from her.

Table 12 gives the data regarding the visible balance of trade between India and the countries of South East Asia and the Far East. It is unnecessary to comment on them at length. Only a few main features may be noted. India had a favourable balance of trade with all these countries with the exception of Burma, Indonesia (Java) upto 1935-36 and Straits Settlements after 1937-38. With the decline in the imports of sugar from Java, because of the development of Indian sugar industry behind tariff walls, India has, from 1935-36, a small favourable balance of trade with Indonesia. The unfavourable balance with Straits Settlements was the result of decrease in exports to that country. This seemed to be only of a temporary nature.

Though throughout the period the balance of trade between India and Australia, Siam and Indo-China was favourable to India it became unfavourable in years of heavy wheat and/or rice imports into India from these countries. The unfavourable balance of trade with Japan in 1937-38 and later years was in the first two years due to temporary causes, such as a short cotton crop in India and consequent fall in exports. In later years it was due to the exigencies of the war which reduced the exports to Japan.

III. INDIAN EMIGRATION

The extent of Indian emigration to Ceylon, Burma and Malaya is considerable. This is discussed below.

CEYLON

Indian emigration to Ceylon is a century-old phenomenon. The character of this emigration is seasonal, but it has its peculiarities. ‘Ceylon has been taken as it were into the Tamil heart; Ceylon is no more foreign to the Trichinopoly labourer than Madura or Rannad, and very much less so than Malabar or Mysore. Tamil emigration to Ceylon....goes back a century and more. In 1837 the number of immigrant Tamil labourers employed in Ceylon coffee estates was estimated at 10,000. The industry developed rapidly and so did the demand for Tamil labour from South India. In 1846 its presence was estimated at 80,000, and in 1855 at 128,000 persons.....1877, the famous famine year in India, produced a tally of Tamil labourers in the island of no fewer than 380,000’.⁴⁸

After 1874 the coffee plantations, which had up to then attracted Indian labour, declined but tea plantations began to expand rapidly. In 1878 there were 4700 acres under tea in Ceylon but in 1915 the acreage had increased to 426,000. This development not only kept up the demand for Indian immigrant labour but increased it. ‘The great famine of 1876-77 led to an abnormal amount of immigration into Ceylon in those years, but the decline of coffee and the good seasons in Madras that succeeded 1879 caused an annual excess of departures from Ceylon over arrivals upto 1886. Thereafter the expansion of the area under tea redressed the balance which has been in favour of the island, except in 1899 and 1907.’⁴⁹ During the present century came about the rapid development of rubber plantations, acreage under rubber increasing from 750 in 1898

48. Census of India, Madras 1931, p. 84.

49. Marjoribanks and Marakhayar, Report on Indian Labour on the estates in Ceylon and Malaya to the Madras Government, 1917, p. 2.

to 240,000 in 1915. This increased further the demand for Indian labour. Table 13 shows the arrivals in and departures from Ceylon of Indians from 1855 to 1915 and for subsequent years. The figures are not very accurate, but show the broad trends fairly accurately.

Table 14 gives figures regarding the percentage of Indians in the total population of Ceylon.

Indians in Ceylon can be classified into three categories (i) Estate labour (ii) Non-estate labour (iii) Others. About 75% of Indians in Ceylon belong to category (i). Table 15 gives figures regarding the Indian population on plantations in Ceylon.

The estates in Ceylon, it would be obvious from Table 14, are predominantly manned by Indians. In 1938 Sir Edward Jackson estimated that 60% of the so-called Indian labour on the estates had become a part of the permanent population of the Island.⁵⁰ The tendency to settle, he pointed out, was growing and the proportion of settled labour was much greater than it had been twenty years before.

Emigration of Indians to estates in Ceylon is 'assisted emigration.' They are recruited in India by a *Kangany*, or recruiter who is himself a plantation labourer and who recruits on behalf of the Ceylon planter. Under the Indian Emigration Rules, 1907, a *Kangany* must be a South Indian of the agricultural classes, who has been employed for not less than three months under the employer for whose services he desires to obtain emigrants from his own or neighbouring villages, and he has to take out a licence for it. The *Tundu* system, which is a system of advances that reduces the labourer almost to slavery, was abolished by the Indian Immigration Act of 1922. The Indian Emigration Act 1923 was the culmination of a long series of measures. Even before 1860 it was felt that more ought to be done for the emigrants to Ceylon. But nothing happened. In the beginning of this century the tin-ticket system was developed. When a labourer produced one of these tickets the officials franked him to his

50. Report of a Commission on Immigration into Ceylon, 1938, p. 26.

estate, by road and rail, charges being later recovered from the employer. The Ceylon Labour Commission, financed from the proceeds of a voluntary cess on Ceylon estates and a contribution from the Ceylon Government, which looked after the interests of immigrants into Ceylon, was established in 1909.

Among the "assisted" emigrants to Ceylon the sex-ratio is high. In emigration to estates women constitute over 25% of the total number and with children and infants make up a total equal to that of the adult males.....The estate labour, thus, is practically a transference of family and home.⁵¹

The non-estate immigrant Indian labourer is not recruited, or at least is not supposed to be recruited. 'He comes on his own initiative and at his own charge. His numbers are subject to no control whatever. He comes as a rule from a different part of India, from the home of the estate workers, or from different surroundings in the same part, and he belongs to different castes. He engages himself in a great variety of occupations. He holds no special place under the law of Ceylon and shares only the general care of the Government for workers in the island, irrespective of race. No legally established organization exists to aid either his coming or his return.'⁵²

This type of emigration is more temporary in nature. It consists mostly of single men going out for short periods and intending to return as soon as possible. The number of such emigrants in 1931 was put at 137,600.⁵³ The non-estate Indian population was put at between 190,000 and 230,000 in 1936.⁵⁴

Besides a number of Indian traders have built up strong positions in the commercial life of Ceylon. 'The trading class, the majority of whom belong to the Chettiar community from South India, flourish as moneylenders and merchants. The Momins and Bohras from the western part of India virtually enjoy the monopoly of the import trade; but there are over 750 registered firms in Ceylon, belonging to the Chettiars alone,

51. Census of India, Madras 1931, p. 85.

52. Report of the Commission on Immigration into Ceylon, 1938.

53. Census of India, Madras 1931, p. 86.

54. Ganguli, p. 143.

which invest an aggregate capital of over £7½ million in banking and commerce.⁵⁵ Almost the whole bulk of Indian emigrants to Ceylon are drawn from Tamil districts in South India. Table 16 shows the sources of immigration into Ceylon from South India.

A large proportion of these emigrants belong to the Depressed Classes. ‘The greater part of the Tamil labour population is of low caste, consisting as it does of Pariahs and Pallans but there are also a large number of Vellalas and Ambalakarans.’⁵⁶ Commenting on emigration to Ceylon during 1921-31, the Census Report, Madras, 1931, observed: Ceylon emigration ‘is also an Adi-Dravida phenomenon, for in the earlier years of the decade, Depressed Classes contributed half of the total emigration and later never less than a third.’⁵⁷

Emigration to Ceylon tends to fluctuate with the trade cycle. In years of prosperity there is heavy emigration to Ceylon and in years of depression it is on a much smaller scale.⁵⁸ These fluctuations mitigate the effects of the trade cycle on Ceylon’s economy. It cuts down unemployment in the depression and provides ample labour force in years of prosperity. The remittances home of Indian labourers during years of prosperity help to ease some inflationary pressure during an expansion of economic activity, and during depressions the depressing effect of remittances abroad is sizeably reduced because of the decline in total remittances.⁵⁹ India, of course, has to bear all the disadvantages.

55. Ganguli, Op. Cit., p. 143-4.

56. Report on Indian Labour etc., Marjoribanks and Marakhayar, 1917, p. 22.

57. Ibid p. 86.

58. Ceylon Blue Book, 1938; and Orde Brown in Sessional Paper XIX of 1943, Diagram II, quoted by Sir Ivor Jennings, Op. cit. p. 53.

59. It is not possible to give any quantitative estimate of the total remittances of Indians from Ceylon, because first, they remit money through their employers and their agencies in India; and secondly they turn their savings often into gold and silver which is liable to customs duties. Postal remittances, therefore, show only a part of the total remittances. This is also true in respect of Indian labourers in Burma and Malaya.

Indians in Ceylon have not adapted themselves to Sinhalese culture. They have refused to be assimilated into Sinhalese population and have preserved their identity. They regard India as their home and Ceylon merely as a place of temporary residence. Inter-marriage is completely absent. In political matters they have displayed an attitude typical of a minority, trying to safeguard its own interests against that of the country as a whole, and to claim disproportionate rights. Indian politics in Ceylon may be compared with Muslim League politics in India before partition. The Sinhalese public has naturally resented this. The economic strength of the Indian Community, its predominance in trade and other employments have also given a fillip to anti-Indian agitation. More recently 'the vote of the Indian members against the White Paper, 1945, the putting up of communal candidates at the general election, the appeals to the Indian voters to vote for the Prime Minister of India (who was alleged, without authority, to be supporting the Ceylon Indian Congress) and the use of Indian vote against U.N.P candidates in constituencies where there was no Ceylon Indian candidate have exacerbated feelings.⁶⁰

The culmination of this was the passing of the Indian Citizenship Bill by 53 votes against 35 in the Ceylon House of Representatives in August, 1948. Under this Bill, the citizenship of Ceylon is denied to those Indians who fail to have the necessary qualifications of heredity or residence in Ceylon.

BURMA

Indian emigration to Burma dates back to the early decades of the eighteenth century. People from Chittagong and Madras went to Burma for trade and employment during the busy agricultural season. The establishment of British

60. As early as 1940, at the Conference between the Government of India and Ceylon to settle outstanding problems regarding Indians in Ceylon the trend of Sinhalese delegation's proposals had been towards substantial reduction in the number of Indians resident in Ceylon. Government of Ceylon, Ivor Jennings, *India Quarterly*, Jan.—March 1948,

rule in Burma gave a fillip to this flow of emigrants and it increased considerably. By 1861 slightly less than 4% of the total population in Burma was Indian. 'From the earliest days of British rule the towns became largely Indian. Already in 1861 the town police were chiefly Indians. Between 1861 and 1872 the number of Indians was nearly doubled, rising to 131,000.'⁶¹ During the 'seventies of the last century a great transformation came over Burmese agriculture and rice began to be grown for export. 'With the multiplication of steam rice mills during the seventies there arose a strong demand for cheap coolie labour during the milling season, from about January to May. The volume of immigrant labour from India, though considerable, was no longer adequate to the demand. The Government attempts to import Indian labour failed, and in 1876 recruitment was left to private enterprise....At that time some 16,000 coolies arrived annually from Madras, but a new shipping company cut passage rates, and the number of immigrants rose sharply to 40,000. The Government decided therefore to subsidize immigration. Within three years the number of immigrants had nearly doubled and a subsidy was no longer required.'⁶²

Table 17 gives the total Indian population in Burma and its percentage in the total Burmese population.

The influx of immigrants from India continued unabated and in 1927 it reached the peak at over 400,000. Commenting on this emigration the Census Report, Madras, 1931, observed; 'The Burmese emigration is largely a Circars phenomenon, and the existence of Burma is undoubtedly an important feature in the ordinary life of the labouring classes there. Burmese development has had a profound influence on the Telugu costal districts and the presence of 300,000 Madrasis in Burma at the time of the census is an indication of the importance of this movement.'⁶³ The main contributions to this flow of emigration came from districts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam,

61. Furnivall, *Colonial Policy and Practice*. A comparative Study of Burma and Netherlands India, 1948, p. 53.

62. Ibid., p. 89.

63. Ibid. p. 82.

Godavari, Tanjore and Ramnad. The emigration tended to vary with the trade cycle and was large during a period of rising prices and *vice versa*.

Some of these seasonal emigrants tended to stay in Burma and directly competed with the Burmese labour and tenant. From the beginning of this century to the beginning of World War II an average of about one-fifth of the emigrants remained in Burma.⁶⁴ Indians staying in Burma, occupationally fall into two main classes, labourers and traders and moneylenders. A somewhat detailed account is necessary to show what position these two classes of Indians now occupy in Burmese economic and social life, and how they came to occupy it.

As already noted Indians had begun to penetrate urban occupations in Burma as early as the sixties of the last century and in 1861 most of the city policemen in Burma were Indians. During the next few years Indian penetration went ahead with all speed. The position in 1884-85 is described by the Administration Report of that year,⁶⁵ which says : 'A large number of natives of India are permanently settled in the sea ports and large villages and they have driven the most apathetic Burman out of the more profitable fields of employment.

The moneylending business of the country is in the hands of the Madras banking caste of Chetties ; the retail piece-goods trade is chiefly in the hands of Suratis, natives of India, and Chinamen. The liquor retail trade is almost exclusively in the hands of Chinamen. The natives of India have also driven the Burman out of the field where hard manual labour is required. The coolies employed by the P.W.D. are almost exclusively Indian, the gharry drivers everywhere are chiefly Madrasis, the coolies on the wharves and the railway stations are also natives of India and natives of India are here and there settling down to permanent rice cultivation".

The process went on and the Burman slowly found himself ousted from industrial and commercial employment as

64. Ganguli, op. cit. p. 133.

65. Quoted by Furnivall, p. 118.

well as from other fields of urban employment. With the growth of import trade and the influx of cheap machine-made goods, which dealt a blow to Burmese handicrafts, the wholesale and retail trade in many important lines passed into the hands of Indians and the Chinese because they had earlier commercial relations with Europeans which the Burmans had not. In administration, too, Indians came to be recruited in preference to Burmese, because of the lack of trained personnel among Burmans and the lower standard of living of Indians. The medical and engineering services were almost completely Indian. Medical and Engineering schools opened in Rangoon for training Burmans were largely taken advantage of by Indians rather than Burmans. The postal and telegraph departments were managed by Indians. So also was the telephone system, and upto 1930 or later, one could not use the telephone in Burma without a knowledge of Hindustani.⁶⁶ In the earlier days Indians had confined themselves to unskilled occupations, leaving the skilled ones to the Burman. Gradually these were also penetrated and the Burman found his preserves invaded by Indians. In most of the large towns in Burma the Indian population increased and concentrated, and in 1931 of the total population of large cities nearly half was Indian. In Rangoon Indians were 52% of the total population and it was considered to be an Indian city. This state of affairs was naturally resented by the Burman.

In rural parts also Indians came to occupy an important position. With the commercialization of the rice crop, soon after the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, the conditions in rural Burma changed radically. Rice cultivation became profitable and there was a scramble for rice land in Lower Burma. The rice trade was dominated by Indian middlemen, mostly Chettiar from Madras. About 1880 they began to send out agents into the villages, and supplied the Burmese peasant, who lacked capital for reclaiming and developing new land, with funds which at times exceeded the cultivator's needs or the security which his land could warrant. The cultivator took

66. Furnivall, op. cit., 121-3.

as much as he got and spent lavishly. ‘But at the first reverse, with any failure of the crop, the death of cattle, the illness of the cultivator, or a fall in prices, due either to fluctuations in world prices or to manipulations of the market by the merchants, the cultivator was sold up, and land passed to the moneylender, who found some other thrifty labourer to take it, leaving part of the purchase price on mortgage, and within two or three years the process was repeated. Thus the land was continuously changing hands, and already in 1895 the Financial Commissioner remarked that land in Lower Burma was transferred as readily as shares on the London Stock Exchange.’⁶⁷ The process went on for a long time, and the Burma Government, though constantly warned, failed to take any preventive measures. The number of Indian tenants also went on increasing. The Season and Crop Report of 1910 noted an increase in the number of Indian tenants. By 1914, it was reported, in and near Rangoon the steady pressure of the Indian immigrant was slowly but surely ousting the Burman. It was noted at that time that even Burmese landlords preferred Indian tenants ‘because they pay larger rents and do not give the landlord such an anxious time when the grain is on the threshing floor’.⁶⁸ By 1926 in Lower Burma 2 million acres of land, or 20% of the total occupied land, had passed into the hands of non-resident non-agriculturists. The world depression worsened the situation further. In the 13 chief rice-producing

67. Furnivall, p. 86-7. The process was repeated in the following years. Thus as the Report of the Burma Land and Agriculture Committee, Part II—Land Alienation (1938) records: “The eight years ending with 1908 saw a large and sustained rise in the price of paddy which improved from Rs. 93 in 1900 to Rs. 137 in 1908. The rise had brought about a land boom which was encouraged by the credit facilities offered by the Chettiar. Many small proprietors borrowed money from the Chettiar and bought more land, usually mortgaging both their old land and their new purchases as security for the loan. The world-wide collapse of credit in 1907 forced the Chettiar to call in their loans, and the small proprietor unable to meet the sudden demand, was forced to surrender to his creditor both his old and new lands.” (p. 51).

68. Christian, *Modern Burma*, p. 125-6.

districts of Lower Burma, the area held by non-agriculturists increased from 2·9 million acres in 1930 to 4·9 million acres. Of this the area held by the Chettiaris increased from 5·7 lakh acres in 1930 to 24·5 lakh acres. Thus in these districts in 1937 half the occupied land was held by non-agriculturists, and Chettiaris alone held a quarter of it.⁶⁹ The distress caused by this development was in no small measure responsible for the anti-Indian rebellion in Burma in 1931.

The Burmese national Government has put restrictions on the entry of Indians into Burma under the Immigration Act (1947). The acquisition of Burmese nationality also has been made difficult for Indians under the new constitution. Recently the Burmese Government passed the Land Nationalization Act and Indian Chettiaris have been loudly protesting that the compensation that has been offered for lands owned by them was too small and meagre. It appears that in future the Indian emigrants to Burma will not enjoy the same privileges as before. Perhaps seasonal emigration might continue unabated, but permanent or semi-permanent settlement in Burma for Indians is likely to be increasingly difficult and unwholesome.

MALAYA

‘ Indian emigration to the Malay Peninsula dates from the commencement of the present (19th) century and originated in or was developed by, the demand for labour, which grew simultaneously with the establishment of British power on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal. Although, under Indian rule, our political relations brought us more into connection with Bengal, yet, the garrison being supplied from Madras, we had a closer connection with that Presidency. Numbers of camp followers were constantly arriving amongst us, and thus there has been a constant stream of intercourse between the Straits and Southern India.’⁷⁰

69. Report of the Land and Agricultural Committee. Part II; Land Alienation, p. 39.

70. Report of the Commissioners of Enquiry into the State of Labour in the Straits Settlements and Protected Native States, 1891, Quoted in Marjoribank’s Report referred to earlier.

As in the case of Ceylon, emigration to Malaya is intimately connected with the development of the plantation industry there. Till about 1887, the chief planting industry was sugarcane cultivation in Province Wellesley and, upto 1885, Indian labourers were recruited for work on these plantations on indenture, under the provisions of Act V of 1887. When coffee-planting developed and expanded, coffee-planters found that the conditions enabled them to dispense with long contracts and to recruit free labourers and the number of free labourers emigrating from India continued to increase. From 1900 rubber began to displace both sugar and coffee and the area of the plantations increased rapidly. At this period there were three kinds of immigrant labour, viz. indentured or contract labour, Kangany-recruited labour and the so-called independent labour.⁷¹ The Indian Immigration Committee was formed by the Malay Government in 1907 and the Indian Immigration Fund, derived from the compulsory contributions from employers of labour was set up in 1908. In 1910 the recruitment of indentured labour from India was abolished and the Kangany system came into prominence. Under the Indian Emigration Rules (1922) certain restrictions were put on the Kanganies. Their system was much abused and declined gradually in importance. The proportion of free labour 'recruited by the proprietors through their own agents steadily increased, and in 1938 the Government of India stopped recruitment through Kanganies.'⁷²

Emigration to Malaya is predominantly a hot weather feature, the movement being at its least during October and March and at its greatest from April to June. The main ports are Madras and Negapatam.... 'The estate labourers' return to India at regular intervals. The average period of an Indian coolie's stay in British Malaya has been estimated at about

71. Marjoribank's Report, p. 28.

72. Ganguli, Op. cit. p. 127. In the same year a ban was put on the emigration of unskilled labour to Malaya when the Malayan Government cut down the minimum wages granted to estate labourers. (Narasimhan, Op. cit. p. 41).

3 years.⁷³ This emigration too is a Tamil phenomenon, though not so pronouncedly so as in the case of Ceylon.. ‘Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Salem and the Arcots make up the bulk of the emigration, Madura and Ramnad assisting... The depressed Classes supply over a third of the emigrants, Vellalas, Goundans, Ambalakarans, Kallars and Vaninyas being the next contributors. The chief contributing castes are the same as for Ceylon emigration and the proportions are not dissimilar ”.⁷⁴

The average number of arrivals from India was around 20,000 per year from 1880 to 1900. In the decade 1901-10 they averaged about 48,000 annually. The average rose to 90,000 during the next decade. The average for the following decade was about 88,000, but that for the quinquennium 1925-29 was 119,790. During 1931-40 the average was about 76,000. The decline was accounted for by the world depression due to which recruitment on rubber plantations in Malaya was stopped during August, 1930, to May 1934.⁷⁵ The flow of emigrants varied with the prosperity of the rubber industry in Malaya. As in the case of emigration to Ceylon the flow was larger during a boom and low during a depression.

Besides the seasonal flow of emigrants there is a domiciled Indian population in Malaya. Table 18 gives the figures regarding the Indian population and its proportion to the total population of Malaya during 1901-31.

Of the total Indian population of 624,007 in 1931, 514,959 were Tamils, 32,541 Telugus, 35,125 Malyalees and 31,001 Sikhs. According to the Census Report for Malaya, 1931, the occupational distribution of Indians in Malaya was as in Table 19.

The majority of Indians was engaged as labourers on the rubber plantations and these consisted mostly of Tamil, Telugu

73. P. S. Narasimhan, The Immigrant Communities of South-East Asia, *India Quarterly*, Jan.—March 1947.

74. Census Report, Madras 1931, p. 87-8, The passage refers in particular to the decade 1921-31, but generally applies to emigration to Malaya in general.

75. Narasimhan, Op. cit. Cf. Marjoribank's Report, Op. cit. Pelzer, *Economic Survey of the Pacific area*, Part I, p. 52.

and Malyalee labourers. The traders and petty shopkeepers were mostly Muhammedans of the Marakkayar community and Chettiar, Sikhs and Pathans, locally called Bengalis, were employed as cart drivers, policemen and watchmen. 'The labouring and non-labouring classes of Indians in this country may be roughly estimated at 70% and 30% respectively of the entire Indian population. Of the non-labouring classes, the most thriving are the Nattukottai Chettiar. They generally do their usual business—moneylending and banking—and in the course of that business have acquired rubber estates, house properties, etc. They have their own chambers of commerce in different centres of Malaya. Next to them come the merchants, both North Indian and South Indian. They are engaged in all sorts of trade—from petty hawking and street vending to the big import and export trade. They have also got their associations in different centres. There are a few advocates and solicitors and also a number of medical men working in Government service and as private practitioners. There is a small number of Indians holding responsible positions in the Government service, such as the police, railways, posts and telegraphs, etc. A number of Punjabis are employed in the ranks of the police and military. The rest, forming the bulk of the non-labouring classes, are to be found in the clerical ranks of the various Government departments, mercantile firms and banks, rubber estates and oil palm plantations and other places of employment.'⁷⁶

To watch and safeguard the interests of Indian labourers in Malaya, the Government of India appointed in 1923 their Agent in Malaya, who had the right to inspect estates where Indians were employed. He had, however, no executive powers. 'The wages paid to Indian labourers' according to a report of this Agent, 'are generally very much lower than the rates paid to Chinese and other labourers. Indian labourers are in great demand in rubber estates by reason of the fact that they are most docile and amenable to discipline and are

76. Annual Report of the Agent of the Government of India in British Malaya for the year 1934, p. 16-17.

very cheap.'⁷⁷ During the depression of the 'thirties a large number of Indians had to leave the plantations and the Government of India encouraged their repatriation. In 1936 the Right Honourable Mr. Shrinivasa Shastri was deputed by the Government of India to investigate the conditions of Indian labourers in Malaya. He recommended that, firstly as Kangany system had earned a bad reputation it should be abolished and secondly, statutory standard wages should be introduced in all areas in Malaya. The first recommendation was accepted, but the second could not find favour in official circles.

'It is laid down in the Malaya Labour Statutes that on application every labourer on an estate shall be provided with an allotment of land for his own cultivation and the area to be so allotted has been fixed at 1/16 acre for each labourer who has dependants.'⁷⁸

'Settlement on land by the descendants of the indentured labourers is largely controlled by the Nattukottai Chettiar who own some 175,000 acres. The conditions under which this land is leased out to tenants are such that no permanent benefit can be derived from it, and the primary producers are forced to live in a state of chronic economic servitude.'⁷⁹

The political problem is peculiar in Malaya, because it is probably the only country in the world where natives are outnumbered by foreigners. Naturally, the Malays have, and quite rightly too, been a claiming preponderance in Government service in larger proportion than their strength in the total population. Both the Indian and Chinese have opposed it bitterly. In the proposed Federal Legislative Council, under the Revised Constitutional proposals adopted by the H. M. G. Malays have a slight preponderance over non-Malays. All those Asians who consider Malaya as their only home and have been continuously in Malaya during the last ten years will be given citizenship rights. The Chinese and the Indians have been asking for a relaxation of these conditions. The

77. International Migrations. National Bureau of Economic Research, 1932.

78. Sastri Report, p. 12.

79. Ganguli, p. 129.

Chettiar had advanced loans to Malays before Japanese occupation. During the occupation the Malays paid their creditors in inflated Japanese currency and got back their titles to land and other property. Two Draft Ordinances, 1947, seeking to validate these transactions have been held in abeyance because of the representation made by the Chettiar who claimed that they had suffered a loss of Rs. 10 crores in these transactions.⁸⁰

80. C. Kondapi, Indians Overseas: A Survey of Developments in 1947, *India Quarterly*, January—March, 1948, p. 68.

IV. RETROSPECT AND THE PROSPECT

Considered as a whole the trade between India and the South-East Asian and Far Eastern countries during the 70 years preceding the outbreak of World War I was small, as compared with the trade between India and Europe. It showed a gradual increase during this period, but the larger share of this increasing trade was claimed by Japan and China. The causes of this development are discussed below.

Trade between countries is a reflection of their resources and economic structures and as these change the complexion of trade between them also changes. It is instructive to indicate how this has happened in India and South-East Asia and the Far East.

During the second half of the last century, trade between India and these countries was small. At that time the economy of most of these countries was colonial — producing raw materials and importing manufactured goods. India, was slightly more industrialized and exported cotton and jute manufactures along with raw materials. The Asian countries could sell their raw materials to industrialized nations and a large part of their trade was done with the respective metropolitan countries. Among themselves they could mainly exchange raw materials. India exported opium and jute manufactures and later on cotton twist and yarn. She imported from these countries in the seventies of the last century such products as coconut and betulnut from Ceylon, the Straits Settlements and the Philippines, rice from Burma, copper from Japan, silk from China, horses from Australia, spices from Java, etc.

Two developments mainly during the 20th century changed the economic set up in some of these countries. The first was the rapid growth and industrial development of Japan, which created a metropolitan centre in the region itself—a centre which was desirous of building up an empire of its own. Secondly, some industries under the aegis of the metropolitan powers were developed in some of these countries, as for

instance the sugar industry in Java, textile industry in Indo-China and textile and other industries in India. As a result, the composition of trade between India and these countries changed somewhat. Instead of exporting twist and yarn to China and Japan, India began to export raw cotton to Japan and to import yarn and piecegoods from China and Japan. She had even to impose tariffs and protective duties for withstanding the competition of Japan even in the home market. Japan, a highly industrialized country, bought raw materials from the South-East Asian countries and India and exported cheap manufactured goods to them, thus cutting largely into the market for European manufactures. The Japanese trade drive was intense and the metropolitan Powers had to resort to all sorts of devices like quotas, tariffs, etc., to protect their colonial trade preserves. But in spite of all these measures, Japan was able to make inroads on their positions in those markets.

The growth of industries, although small in proportion, encouraged trade between themselves. Thus the development of sugar industry in Java displaced to some extent the imports of European beetroot sugar in some of the South-East Asian countries. The Indian textile industry exported its products to South-East Asian countries.

Another development in South-East Asian trade was that of rice trade. This was the logical corollary to the development of colonial economies in this region. The expansion of commercial crops in Malaya, Ceylon and Indonesia, led to a fall in domestic rice production. Rice imports became necessary. On the other hand, rice crop came to be developed as a commercial crop in Indo-China, Siam and Burma which countries thus developed rice surpluses. Rice trade naturally sprang up between these countries. Five countries of Monsoon Asia—Burma, Indo-China, Thailand and Taiwan—produce an exportable surplus of rice which enters into international trade. Between two-thirds and three-fourths of the gross exports of these five net exporting countries goes to net importing countries of Monsoon Asia—India, China, British Malaya, the Netherlands Indies and the Philippine Islands. The other fourth to third of all exports are destined for

markets outside the Far-East, chiefly Europe.⁸¹ After 1928 the structure of the world rice market underwent a change. Countries to the east of the Malay Peninsula — China, Indonesia and the Philippines — reduced their rice imports to the tune of about 900,000 tons by the beginning of World War II. In the last two countries the reduction was due to a deliberate policy while the reduction in China resulted from an improvement in transportation within the country. In the countries west of the Malay Peninsula — India, Ceylon, Malaya — the rice market expanded, the total imports during the period increasing by about 800,000 tons. The contraction was almost fully compensated for by the expansion and there was a redistribution of rice trade within the region without the total volume contracting.

Ceylon, India and the Netherlands East Indies competed in international tea markets. It was in 1933 that they agreed to an international control of production and exports, thus largely eliminating competition. In the sphere of manufactured goods Indian, cotton textiles had to meet the competition of Japan and China in some respects, and to withstand Japanese competition India had to take resort to tariffs and protective duties and quota arrangements.

In contrast with the other South-East Asian and Far Eastern countries, Burma and Ceylon have a large volume of trade with India, and their dependence on the Indian economy is also great. This is particularly true of Burma. Since the separation of Burma from India, on an average more than 50% of Burma's imports were derived from India, while about 60% of her exports went to India.⁸² This extreme concentra-

81. Wickizer & Bennet, *Rice Economy of Monsoon Asia*, 1941, p. 85.

82. Christian, *Modern Burma*. "In normal years India takes approximately sixty per cent of Burma's exports including all of her surplus petrol, kerosene, three fourths of her timber exports, and nearly half of her rice. Her only important exports that do not go to India in quantity are lead, tin, rubber, tungsten and silver. Although Indo-Burma trade amounts to sixty per cent of Burma's total trade it accounts for only seven per cent of India's trade. This means that India is in a strong position when negotiating trade agree-

tion has partly resulted from the fact of Burma's being administratively a part of India for a long time. A gradual modification of the position might be expected in course of time. Ceylon's dependence on India is not so overwhelming, largely because only 5 to 6% of Ceylon's exports find their way into India, the rest going elsewhere. Of her total imports, however, India supplied about 20% and these consisted mainly of such vital supplies as food, cattle feed, manure and cotton textiles. India is in a strong bargaining position in respect of Ceylon. Indeed it is an irony that it is in these countries that the problem of Indian immigrants has become acute. Implications of the situation will be discussed later.

The prospects and the likely course of trade between India and South-East Asian and Far Eastern countries in the future is conditioned by three factors :—

- (i) The effects flowing from the partition of British India ;
- (ii) The possible economic policies and developments in India and these countries ; and
- (iii) The position that Japan does, or is likely to, occupy in the Pacific Ocean region. These are considered below in some detail.
(i) The effects of the partition of British India can be only broadly indicated. The total area of Pakistan is 361,218 square miles and the total population a little over 70 million. By partition India lost a little less than 20% of her land and 23% of her population. Broadly speaking, most of the large-scale industries in undivided India are situated in the Indian Union. Pakistan contains 16 cotton mills, 9 sugar mills, 5 cement factories and 4 glass factories. There are neither jute or paper mills in Pakistan nor iron and steel works. Pakistan has no mineral resources besides chromite, gypsum and petroleum. Her share in the total mineral production in

ments with Burma. India would have little difficulty, in satisfying her import requirements other than rice outside Burma, while Burma would have the greatest difficulty in disposing of her surplus rice which India now consumes," 1942, p. 135,

India during 1945 was 3·2%. But Pakistan is rich in agricultural resources and the partition has adversely affected Indian Union in this sphere. Nearly one-third of the total irrigated area in pre-partition India, is now in Pakistan which, on an average, produced about one-third of the total rice and wheat produced in pre-partition India. Relatively to her population, therefore, the position of India has definitely become worse in respect of rice and wheat than before the partition. The food shortage in India as a result of partition may be considered to have increased by anything between 700,000 to 800,000 tons of foodgrains.

In respect of oil seeds the position of the Indian Union is strong. Pakistan produced only a small proportion of the total oil seed supplies in pre-partition India. In the production of rape and mustard Pakistan's share is 20%.

The raw cotton position of the Indian Union has been adversely affected by partition. The share of Pakistan in the total cotton production in India was about one-third, about 60% in the production of long and medium staple varieties.⁸³

Almost the whole of the cotton textile industry is located in the Indian Union and during 1945-46 it consumed 3·1 million bales of cotton. Of these 2·1 million bales were of long and medium staple varieties. During the same year the total cotton production in the Indian Union amounted, according to trade estimates, to 2·47 million bales, of which 1·3 million bales were of long and medium staple cotton.

As a result of the partition the Indian Union has become a net importer of raw cotton. The average annual raw cotton requirements of the Indian Union can be reasonably put at about 3·5 million bales, even if the total capacity of the Indian textile industry remains the same. The Indian Union will have to import cotton from Pakistan or abroad, and most of it will have to be of medium and long staple varieties.⁸⁴

83. Indian Trade Bulletin, 1947 Annual Review Number, Ministry of Commerce, p. 51.

84. At the 56th meeting of the I.C.C. it was suggested that the Indian Union can become self-sufficient in regard to raw cotton. But there are great difficulties in the way. It is, for instance, imprudent and

The present exportable surplus of raw cotton of the Indian Union has been estimated at between 100,000 and 200,000 bales of short staple cotton.⁸⁵ Even if raw cotton production in the Indian Union increases by 50% over the present level, the Indian Union will not be in a position to export more than 200,000 to 300,000 bales.

The development of the cotton textile industry in Pakistan is only a matter of time and, when developed, it will be a strong rival to the Indian textile industry. Much of the talk about India taking the place of Japan in textile exports has now to be considerably modified.

The jute situation of the Indian Union has also been very adversely affected by the partition. On an average 75% of the total jute produced in India is grown in the Pakistan areas. If only the export varieties are considered Pakistan's share comes to 50%.⁸⁶ The Tossa and Daisee varieties of jute, grown in the Indian Union, are largely exported. The jute manufacturing industry is located almost in the Indian Union. The annual consumption of raw jute during the last ten years has been never less than 5·5 million bales, while during the same period the average production of raw jute in the Indian Union was around 1·8 million bales. The Indian Union will have to be a net importer of raw jute on a considerable scale even if production of raw jute is pushed to the farthest point of expansion. As in the case of cotton textile industry, the development of jute manufacturing industry in Pakistan is only a matter of time and there can be no doubt that the jute manufacturing industry in the Indian Union will have to play the second fiddle.

India has also lost a part of her market and what was formerly an assured and protected internal market has now

uneconomic to extend the area under cotton in the Indian Union materially in the face of the increased deficit in food supplies resulting from partition. The only hope lies in increasing per acre yields, by intensive agriculture. The latter will depend on the effectiveness of the state planning in that regard.

85 Report of the Indian delegation to the International Cotton Advisory Committee, *Times of India*, 17 May 1948.

86. Indian Trade Bulletin, op. cit.

become a foreign competitive market. The implications of this in respect of such goods as cotton manufactures, sugar, etc., can be grasped on a little reflection.

(ii) Because of the unsettled conditions in many of the S. E. Asian countries and of the lack of precise information, the possible economic policies that would be adopted in them can be indicated only in broad outline. Many of the countries are now emerging as independent countries and shedding their colonial status. Their policies will be largely dictated, influenced and shaped by their politico-economic set-up.

It is likely they will seek a separate entity of their own and try to strengthen the same politically and economically. The dependence on a few commercial crops would be sought to be eliminated as far as possible. Efforts would probably be made to diversify economic activity by the development of industries, the encouragement of cottage and village industries and the reorganization and rehabilitation of native agriculture. In a world of developed communications it may not be possible altogether to avoid economic fluctuations, but their range and acuity could be considerably diminished by wise economic development.

This pursuit of diversification would also subserve the other likely desire of becoming economically and politically strong. As countries now seeking to assert their national sovereignty, both internally and externally, they would have to provide for the development and maintenance of a minimum of military preparedness for defence purposes. This preparedness would largely depend upon the degree of self-sufficiency in regard to resources and manufactures that they could build up. They would have to build up self-sufficiency at least in regard to such basic items as food and basic industries.

Naturally such a policy would mean the curtailment of acreage under commercial crops and the break-up of plantations, as well as the development of industries by means of protection, subsidies, etc. How far these policies would go would depend upon the location and the set-up of political and economic power in these countries. So long as the metropolitan countries continue to dominate their economic policies,

by one means or another, the progress of diversification policies is likely to be slow. Industries can get only grudging protection. The acreage under commercial crops is likely to be only slowly reduced and plantations would probably not be much tampered with. If, on the other hand, power is transferred to the hands of the native or alien (Chinese, Indian, etc.) capitalistic middle class, industrial development is likely to be fostered, but the diversification in agriculture would more probably not receive as much attention.

Also, in raising a stable economic structure there would most likely have to be an attempt at a more widespread diffusion of land-ownership and the building up of a strong community of small farmers, which would also help in some degree social integration and agricultural rehabilitation. For this, the break-up of large plantations and landed estates would be a precondition. Whether such a policy would be adopted and, if adopted, whether it would be pursued far enough, would depend again upon the political set-up in these countries. If the Western overlords continue to dominate or if power comes to be wielded by the indigenous landed interests, the chances of such a policy being adopted will be remote. If, however, power becomes concentrated in the hands of the indigenous and alien bourgeoisie, the chances of such policies being pursued would be brighter. Such policies will be vigorously followed only if peasants in these countries get the upper hand.

These countries are also likely to seek an integration of society and the elimination of its plural characteristics. For this the elimination of the foreign elements would be a prime necessity, together with the spread of education, revival of indigenous cultures and languages, progressive social legislation, etc. It is obvious that if political power goes into the hands of the alien elements, who are economically stronger, the question of their elimination will not arise. If the Westerners dominate policy, there is a likelihood of their turning the wrath of the native communities against themselves towards the other foreign elements, like the Indians and the Chinese. By doing this the Western foreigner, the prime-exploiter, is able to divert attention from himself to the second

degree exploiters, like the Chinese and the Indians. This policy has been successfully followed by the Western metropolitan powers in the past. It is likely to be pursued further if the class of Westernized natives in these countries comes to dominate the political scene. Only if power is vested in the hands of the masses of natives will such a policy not be vigorously pursued.

The programme of economic development in these areas is likely to be naturally directed towards the mitigation and removal of the crushing poverty of the inhabitants. For this purpose, not only increased production but more equitable distribution of wealth will have to be planned. If the native bourgeoisie and the salaried classes in these areas come to dominate the government's policy, the former might be pushed ahead, but the latter would most likely receive scant attention. These classes will not be interested in egalitarian policies calling for higher taxation of the richer and the middle classes. Only if the smaller peasants secure a strong political position for themselves can such measures be expected to be framed and put into effect.

Another problem will be that of industrialization. Most of the South-East Asian countries are predominantly agricultural. If productivity has to be increased all round, this state of things will have to be ended by developing industries and enabling the diversion of a significant percentage of population from agriculture to industries.

The prospects of industrialization of these areas depend, as elsewhere, upon their natural resources, labour and capital supplies. The natural resources of all the countries are not varied and though, by ordinary standards, they look ample, they are scarcely so in relation to their populations. The agricultural and mineral resources of China, India, the Netherlands East Indies, Burma and Indo-China are sizable and varied, but areas like Malaya and Thailand and the Philippines do not possess resources that would be capable of sustaining large-scale industrial development. There is, however, some scope for such development in these areas.

In all these countries there is a plethora of labour power, except perhaps in Malaya, where immigrants exceed the

native population. Yet there cannot be, even here, a question of labour shortage. The people in these countries are intelligent and capable of learning skilled work and can be trained into skilled workers over a period of time.

The crucial difficulty in the industrial development of these areas, however, is the supply of capital. In all the countries of South-East Asia crushing poverty is a byword. The living standards in these countries are so low that a large proportion of the people live constantly in sight of starvation. Consequently, the supplies of savings in these countries are exceedingly small and paltry. Any large-scale industrialization would require enormous amounts of capital and only an insignificant part of those requirements could be met by capital formation in the areas themselves. They would have to depend upon huge imports of capital from abroad for their development, if the latter is to be on a large enough scale and also at adequate speed. Otherwise industrialization of these areas will be halting and haphazard.⁸⁷

It need not be pointed out that this sketch does not include Japan, New Zealand and Australia.

(iii) The position and economic conditions in Japan in the future will give a decided turn to the pattern of economic development in South-East Asia and the Far East, and in its turn the pattern of trade in this region. This is given in an ECAFE Report.

'The measure in which countries of Asia and the Far East will utilize Japanese economic and industrial potential, will, in important respects, determine the measure in which intra-ECAFE trade will be promoted in the immediate future. There are two aspects to this question:—(1) Exports to and from Japan and (2) Reparations. In so far as political questions are involved, they are not within the scope of the ECAFE. Granted that the Peace Treaty and the controls thereunder would effectively prevent the re-emergence of Japan would be exploited for the reconstruction and re-

87. Transition from a Colonial to a National Economy, with special reference to South-East Asia, Paper prepared for the Asian Relations Conference (1947), by the Research Staff of the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona.

habilitation of ECAFE countries within the limits of Allied policy to Japan, becomes essentially a practical economic problem of the highest urgency. The Far Eastern Economic Commission has taken the position that Japan should be permitted in general the per capita levels of consumption which prevailed during the 1930-34 period. Currently, the level of industrial production in Japan is about 45% of the 1930-34 average. Coal production has been encouraging, having reached the base period level of 2.75 million tons per month, while the output in steel was in 1947, 35% of the base period, and, in cotton textile, 25%.

Two important conditions to the ECAFE region making the fullest use of Japan's industrial capacity for the industrialization of the Far East are:—(1) the availability of industrial raw materials to Japan in sufficient quantities and (2) financial arrangements to facilitate the movement of goods and materials. The principal problem is expanding production and export trade of Japan sufficiently to pay for essential imports of food and raw materials, especially from sources in Asia and the Far East. Provided raw materials can be supplied, the ECAFE countries will be able to obtain from Japan, for their industrialization programmes, several kinds of capital goods and machinery such as electrical and communication appliances, general industrial machinery, including textile and mining machinery, measuring and optical equipment, bicycles, trucks, and railway rolling stock, prime movers, machine tools and particularly all kinds of chemicals and light machinery which will not absorb too much of steel. It is not possible at present to make any quantitative estimates as to the steel products and machinery which can be obtained from Japan in the immediate years ahead, but presumably those quantities would potentially exceed by two to three times the exports during the 1930-34, period which valued about \$55 million, or, at the present prices, about \$140 million. With a view to maximization of the exports of such goods from Japan to other ECAFE territories, the raw materials imported into Japan would have to be canalized into channels producing for export; and other controls and allocations and balancing

of the export requirements against the minimum essential domestic requirements would be called for.

A second category of commodities which ECAFE countries would be able to obtain from Japan is industrial materials and products other than machinery and metal products. Exports in 1930-34 of these articles were: chemicals, dyes, paints and drugs,—US \$ 45,000,000; chemical fertilizers—US \$ 7,000,000; cement US \$ 12,000,000. Thirdly, as regards textiles which, before the war, constituted important exports, Japanese production in 1947 was only 20% of 1930-34 average. In percentage of the 1930-34 average, textile exports in 1947 were:—

	<i>Yarn</i>		<i>Fabrics</i>
Cotton	13·4 mn, lb. (6%)	360 mn, yds.	(17%)
Rayon	5·8 „ (63%)	2·6 „	(2%)
Woolen	0·3 „ (10%)	0·9 „	(1%)

It is not anticipated that the 1930-34 level will be restored for another five years to come. Export capacity up to something like 50% of the base period could possibly be developed in the immediate years ahead, provided the necessary raw materials are made available. The revival of Japanese textile production and export is limited by several considerations:—

(1) Unlike in other sectors of the Japanese economy, export will call for an expansion in present capacity, which is less than one-half of that existing in 1930-34; besides, there is substantial amount of repair and replacement to be done.

(2) A more important factor is the desire of countries like India and China to develop export trade in textiles for markets formerly supplied by Japan. Definite plans to this end exist or are under way. The extent to which Japan could be utilized by them in building up their spindlage capacity would require consideration of reviving Japanese textile exports.

(largely because of the demand for repairs and replacements of their plants), clearly have the best chance where power is more plentiful. India's power resources (except for the potential water power) are much smaller than China's. Iron resources of India are large enough, absolutely, to sustain an industry as large as Britain's for several generations, but this would not very greatly transform the general economic structure of a community of nearly 400 millions, and it is in relation to their probable effects on structure, not to their absolute size, that resources are of interest for the present purposes'.⁸⁹

Discussing the future trade pattern on this back-ground, Prof. Brown further observes : 'China, India, and Eastern Europe are not even potentially wealthy, and are therefore likely not only to develop first industries which are "light" (in regard to power and capital), but to continue to specialize on them very largely, even when the initial scarcity of industrial skill is overcome. Their subsequent economic progress will not make them more like the United States in their external trade ; they may well become in this respect first more like Japan, then more like Italy.'⁹⁰

These considerations indicate that the trade of the South-East Asia region as a whole and *inter se* would tend to contract in the future for several reasons. Firstly, as these countries begin the processing of raw material produced at home, exports of these will contract and imports of manufactures thereof would also tend to decline. Secondly, as visualized above, these countries are likely to develop such light industries as textiles, rubber manufactures, mechanical engineering, footwear, etc., and this development will have to take place under tariff protection, even as the Indian sugar industry developed when protected against the competition of Java sugar industry. These countries will most probably resort to protective tariffs for industrial development and this might also reduce the trade of and in, this region. Thirdly,

89. Industrialization and Trade, 1943, Royal Institute of International Affairs, p. 23.

90. *Ibid.* p. 35.

as the Report on Trade Promotion of the ECAFE points out, the two major items of exports from this region to the U.S.A., U.K. and other countries, rubber and silk, are likely to show a declining trend in exports, because of the development of synthetic substitutes.

Another development might tend to expand the trade of, and within the region, but is not likely to balance the decline indicated above. This factor is the new freedom that colonial economies in South-East Asia will enjoy, because of the severance of imperial chains. Most of their trade in the older days was done with the metropolitan countries. Now this concentration of trade might end, and a wider distribution of trade may be envisaged. Such a development will not make any change in the Philippines, because of the long-term trade pacts with the U.S.A. In French Indo-China, Indonesia, etc. the transition from colonial to a national economy may tend to reduce total trade, as discussed earlier.

In discussing the prospects of future long-term trade in the ECAFE region and the position that India is likely to occupy, the ECAFE Report on Trade Promotion observes : 'A new multilateral pattern of trade can be visualized in which India would supply several of the ECAFE territories with manufactures and other goods; several of the ECAFE territories would supply rubber, tin and tea and other raw materials to the U.S.A., U.K. and other advanced industrial countries and India having a negative balance of trade with U.S.A., U.K. and other advanced countries which will be covered by the positive balance of trade of the less developed countries of ECAFE with U.S.A. and U.K.'⁹¹

Such a view ignores some patent realities. India had a favourable balance of trade with the South-East Asian countries in the past, as has been shown above, but for several reasons this is likely to shrink and probably disappear in the future. Since the partition of the country, India's two main export industries, namely, jute and cotton manufactures have been adversely affected. Again, if the South-East Asian countries, as discussed earlier, succeed in diversifying their

^{91.} Ibid p. 9-10.

economies to any significant extent and in reducing the exports of such raw produce as rubber, rice and sugar, which require jute packing, the demand for Indian jute manufactures from these countries will tend to decline, and with it India's favourable balance of trade with those countries. Secondly, as indicated earlier, exports of Indian manufactured goods to these countries will find the markets restricted because of tariffs and quotas. Thirdly, India's requirements of rice might tend to expand, and larger imports of rice than hitherto from the countries in this region are likely to be necessary.

It appears improbable for all these reasons that India will continue to have a substantially favourable balance of trade with the South-East Asian region. Owing to the clouds of political and economic uncertainty that at present hang low over the world as a whole, it is difficult to visualize the new pattern of world trade.

The other aspect of India's economic relations with her South-East Asian neighbours is that of the migration of Indians to these countries. Indian migration to Ceylon, Burma and Malaya, as explained above, was largely under the aegis of the British. It could take the form it did only under the circumstances that British imperialism created. The withdrawal of British Imperialism from these areas—though only half way through in Malaya—has changed the entire background. Indians abroad are likely to encounter increasing opposition. The Indian trading and commercial interests in these countries have evoked stronger and more bitter resentment, and it is likely that more and more restrictions will be placed on their activities. This is not an isolated phenomenon. Foreign elements all over South-East Asia are experiencing a similar fate. The reaction against the Chinese in Siam and lately in the Philippines are cases in point. Such a development is but natural during the transition from a colonial to a national economy. Realizing the new set-up of things the problem of Indians will have to be continuously handled in such a manner as to lay the ghost of an incipient Indian imperialism.

TABLE 1. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND CEYLON DURING 1911-40

[Source : *Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India*]

Exports from India to Ceylon

(Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

TABLE I.—Exports from India to Ceylon (Continued)

Commodity	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Animals living	Rs. Nos.	23	17	17	19	22	24	31	31	28
Coal, Coke, Fuel	Rs. Tons.	226	157	198	213	241	312	391	411	357
Coffee	Rs. Cwts.	14	15	18	34	29	33	49	42	222
Cotton Manufactures	Rs. Cwts.	105	97	109	207	203	243	384	41	36
Cotton, Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	349	296
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	103	87	81	87	97	111	89	85	19
Rice	Rs. Tons.	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
Fish	Rs. Cwts.	211	144	142	143	129	121	98	139	261
Fodder, Bran, etc.	Rs. Tons.	99	84	78	84	95	108	87	82	75
Fruits, Vegetables, etc.	Rs. Tons.	18,352	17,131	16,205	16,006	18,435	21,677	19,649	17,835	17,613
Jute gunny cloth	Rs. Tons.	617	695	665	722	742	718	782	706	662
Jute bags	Rs. Tons.	2,037	2,008	2,638	3,008	3,176	420	495	460	449
Manures	Rs. Tons.	1,240	1,350	446	2	9	7	8	7	4
Oil-cakes	Rs. Lbs.	21	31	39	40	31	36	32	22	1,523
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	15	26	36	31	26	30	26	20	18
Wood and Timber	Rs. Lbs.	38	50	51	44	68	69	59	55	23
		28	35	35	35	53	52	47	46	23
		26	15	24	27	29	31	34	33	34
		4,115	2,579	3,846	3,981	4,171	4,427	4,716	4,648	3,733
		3	5	7	9	10	9	7	6	5,006
										3

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE I.—Exports from India to Ceylon (Continued)

Commodity		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Animals living	Rs.	12	9	9	9	7	6	7	6	6
	Nos.	103	38	40	43	34	29	32	29	27
Coal, Coke, Fuel	Rs.	33	20	26	23	13	17	36	26	42
	Tons.	273	169	223	216	133	203	365	255	407
Coffee	Rs.	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Cotton Manufactures	Cwts.	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
Cotton, Twist and Yarn	Rs.	71	52	51	63	69	91	93	69	70
	Lbs.	139	136	172	148	137	169	246	221	141
Cotton Piecegoods	Yds.	70	51	50	62	68	89	91	68	67
Rice	Rs.	17,105	13,098	13,387	17,908	18,953	24,505	26,916	18,898	23,484
	Tons.	377	347	273	285	359	355	107	119	114
Fish	Rs.	430	408	413	405	440	433	92	107	95
Fodder, Bran, etc.	Cwts.	42	36	36	37	38	38	38	35	36
	Rs.	232	206	221	236	254	266	228	221	237
Fruits, Vegetables, etc.	Tons.	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4
Jute gunny cloth	Rs.	19	7	7	8	8	8	8	9	9
Jute bags	Yds.	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	3
	Rs.	2,865	2,316	2,553	2,259	1,798	2,096	2,049	1,887	1,620
Manures	Nos.	1,653	344	979	1,089	210	153	629	428	1,330
	Rs.	15	8	11	17	17	14	17	14	20
Oil-cakes	Tons.	18	12	17	19	24	22	24	20	26
Tea	Rs.	26	17	15	19	17	16	19	18	28
	Cwts.	34	22	23	26	21	23	26	22	33
Wood and Timber	Rs.	2,907	3,531	3,247	3,046	3,497	2,575	3,368	3,933	6,992
	Lbs.	2	2	1	2	2	3	A	A	A

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE I. Imports from Ceylon to India (Continued)

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Coffee	Rs. Cwts.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	A B
Grain, Pulses, Flour	Rs. Tons. cwtS.	A 2	A 1	A 1	A 3	A 7	A 3	A B	A B	B 1	14 3
Hides and Skins	Rs. Tons. cwtS.	A 4	A 3	A 225	A 221	cwtS. 237	cwtS. 156	cwtS. 184	cwtS. B	B B	B B
Metals	Rs. Tons. Rs. Lbs.	A 1	A 1	A 1	A 1	cwtS. 2	cwtS. 1	cwtS. 4	cwtS. 7	15	19 9
Rubber raw	Rs. Lbs.	"	"	"	"	"	"	A A	A A	4 3	4 1
Rubber manufactures	Rs. Tons. cwtS.	A 1	A 1	A 1	A 1	A 3	A 2	A A	A B	2 2	3 3
Seeds	Rs. Tons. cwtS.	A 4	A 2	A 2	A 25	cwtS. 19	cwtS. 12	cwtS. 6	cwtS. 40	121 42	107 26
Spices	Rs. Cwts. lbs.	A 12,031	A 10,943	A 11,661	A 13,564	cwtS. 27	cwtS. 23	cwtS. 32	cwtS. 35	41	30 33
Oils-coconut	Rs. Gals. Rs. Lbs.	A 2	A 8	A 1,834	A 1,897	lbs. 1	lbs. 7	lbs. 1,745	lbs. 1,986	157	185 128
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	A 8	A 9	A 8	A 9	A 1,517	A 1,745	A 2,432	A 5,113	7	3 1
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	A 4,914	A 4,485	A 4,083	A 9	lbs. 3,200	lbs. 3,765	lbs. 6,103	lbs. 5,828	15	12 8

A—below Rs. 50,000

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 1. Imports from Ceylon to India (Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Coffee	Rs.	7	4	3	4	7	9	9	11	6
Grain, Pulses, Flour	Cwts.	15	10	7	8	15	18	17	20	11
Hides and Skins	Rs.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	A 1
Metals	Tons	B 4	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5	B 5
Rubber raw	Rs.
Rubber manufactures	Lbs.
Seeds	Rs.	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Spices	Tons	B 1	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2	B 2
Oils-coconut	Rs.	38	34	37	43	36	33	37	35	36	36	36
Tea	Cwts.	138	150	126	126	139	115	134	123	172	172	172
Jute bags	Rs.	A 2	2	13	29	1	1	55	55	32	18	42
Nos.	Gals.	7	79	549	1,142	47	1,439	2,385	1,545	1,202	3,298	79
	Lbs.	2	6	6	10	9	12	16	19	15	18	12
	Rs.	325	777	646	1,001	1,028	1,361	1,838	2,581	2,141	2,729	1,986
	Nos.	4,546	11	12	13	17	15	17	15	12	10	9
		4,546	5,000	4,527	5,034	4,545	5,851	5,691	5,052	4,463	4,081	3,884

A — below Rs. 50,000.

B — below 500 units.

TABLE 1. Imports from Ceylon to India (Continued)

		1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Coffee	Rs.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
	Cwts.											
Grain, Pulses, Flour	Rs.	1	1	A	B	B	B	A	A	A	A	A
	Tons	1	1	2	2	3	4	3	4	5	2	2
Hides and Skins	Rs.	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Metals	Rs.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	1	1
Rubber raw	Tons	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1
Rubber manufactures	Rs.	2	3	2	1	4	A	A	A	5	60	7
Seeds	Lbs.	886	1,036	623	541	986	10	74	1,132	9,627	996	
Spices	Rs.	A	A	1	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Oils—coconut	Rs.	30	40	63	95	88	61	68	134	182	224	55
Tea	Tons	22	32	35	45	46	45	36	83	104	104	104
Jute bags	Rs.	15	11	10	14	9	9	11	12	16	62	62
	Cwts.	88	78	85	120	64	73	86	86	107	188	
	Rs.	43	39	37	27	32	14	29	24	14	37	
	Gals.	4,528	5,505	3,347	2,204	2,728	1,700	2,636	2,455	1,299	1,264	
	Rs.	5	3	4	3	3	2	2	2	1	52	
	Lbs.	878	512	563	350	351	291	248	179	110	4,926	
	Rs.	7	6	7	4	5	5	6	5	5	2	
	Nos.	3,499	2,466	3,411	3,193	1,816	2,357	2,169	2,540	1,971	737	

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 2. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND BURMA DURING 1909—42

[Source : *Burma Trade Returns as quoted in the "Review of the Trade of India"]**Imports into India from Burma*

(Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

	Pre-War 1909-13	War 1914-19	Post-War 1920-24	Average 1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Rice in husk	Rs. Tons.	154 168	112 93	86 1,093	118 794	163 1,296	136 937	194 1,337	190 1,475	162 1,060	117 904
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons.	418 383	796 806	1,093 709	794 506	1,296 882	937 587	184 904	173 1,060	175 909	169 811
Pulses	Rs. Tons.	17 19	19 19	64 46	29 24	23 18	22 22	27 23	43 23	50 35	27 23
Mineral Oils											
Kerosene	Rs. Gals.	9,57,570	1,10,821	1,19,290	410	469	433	469	431	418	498
Lubricating	Rs. Gals.	21*	21	21	1,37,885	1,27,045	1,37,687	1,26,711	1,12,052	527
Benzine and Petrol	Rs. Gals.	2,967*	2,160	2,847	2,662	2,683	3,462	3,623	3,693	50
Candles	Rs. Lbs.	.. 4,409	4,215†	14,371	17,672	24,846	29,516	41,636	41,770	52,106	7,341
Lac (stick)	Rs. Cwts.	15	15	13	14	11	9	284
Teak Wood	Rs. Cu. Tons.	117 128	182 110	239 166	237 185	285 189	287 182	297 188	253 160	265 169	152
Other Timber	Rs. Cu. Tons.	18	14	28	20	33	52	52	41	41	104

* Average for four years.

† Average for four years representing Petrol only.

TABLE 2. Imports into India from Burma [Indian merchandise] (Continued)

	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Rice in Husk										
Rs.	55	66	100	96	49	32	47	28	14	1
Tons.	110	161	222	174	87	59	96	48	23	1
Rice not in husk										
Rs.	637	993	1,197	1,173	1,151	950	1,050	1,484	1,176	739
Tons.										
Pulses	936	1,628	1,987	1,573	1,534	1,267	1,475	1,862	1,250	661
Rs.	32	28	37	61	66	33	49	64	50	..
Tons.	42	44	50	74	82	39	60	71	54	..
Mineral Oils										
Kerosene										
Rs.	842	849	925	914	918	712	684
Gals.	1,26,397	1,22,588	1,27,776	1,14,728	1,27,585	1,31,338	1,26,090
Lubricating										
Rs.	70	65	69	79	66	76	62
Gals.	7,465	6,525	6,779	7,264	5,505	6,987	5,165
Benzine and Petrol										
Rs.	534	542	574	611	690	236	214
Candles										
Rs.	46,650	48,082	55,339	65,473	66,124	54,659	50,000
Lbs.	8	7	7	8	8	9	8	9	9	11
Lac (stick)										
Rs.	2,752	2,582	2,617	2,981	2,784	3,179	3,000	2,905	2,291	2,682
Cwts.	2	9	10	5	7	2	1	4	1	5
Teak Wood										
Rs.	163	164	182	209	197	204	200	201	193	152
Cu. Tons.	126	132	154	180	170	164	160	170	165	120
Other Timber										
Rs.	16	18	22	32	30	31	34	28	26	..
Cu. Tons.	18	23	30	41

TABLE 2. Exports from India to Burma [Indian merchandise] (Continued)

		Pre-War Average 1909-13	War Average 1914-18	Post-War Average 1920-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Coal	Rs. Tons.	51	65	109	84	81	93	140	100	108	96	68
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	413	342	370	354	433	434	769	615	703	654	427
Cotton Piece Goods (White bleached)	Rs. Yds.	56	97	235	173	163	117	117	79	101	70	68
Cotton Piece Goods (Coloured Printed or dyed)	Rs. Yds.	10,395	12,676	18,944	15,493	16,848	16,054	16,798	10,234	13,000	12,430	12,915
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	3,707	8	18	25	11	15	9	9	11	12	15
Betel nuts	Rs. Cwts.	12,199	21,312	18,122	15,860	14,595	14,043	15,859	15,995	13,000	11,249	20,438
Tobacco (air-manufactured)	Rs. Lbs.	38,948	39,822	40,123	41,203	54,027	46,434	44,408	51,962	48,000	49,030	53,292
Pulse	Rs. Tons.	60	56	64	71	79	82	73	60	59	48	43

TABLE 2. Imports into India from Burma (Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42 ^c
Coal	Rs. Tons	55 341	45 274	50 331	46 ^b 311 ^b	42 ^b 283 ^b	45 299	55 349
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	65 12,616	52 11,506	55 11,842	48 10,100	51 10,804	54 10,243	61 12,443	74 17,183	221 44,440	133 23,538
Cotton Piece Goods (White bleached)	Rs. Yds.	14 5,595	29 15,631	55 30,194	45 21,574	55 29,201	61 31,080	53 28,489	74 40,043	82 39,515	55 21,198
Cotton Piece Goods (Coloured, Printed or dyed)	Rs. Yds.	70 22,913	90 36,029	106 44,746	73 29,626	78 33,050	113 49,054	97 39,435	180 65,350	172 63,852	108 34,928
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	111 41,181	153 57,196	152 56,951	128 53,241	120 54,479	119 52,097	132 58,548	177 50,882	175 51,624	91 26,250
Betel nuts	Rs. Cwts.	34 225	30 231	27 213	27 203	31 202	24 152	25 165	23 166	22 159	5 159
Tobacco (un-manufactured)	Rs. Lbs.	28 13,399	22 11,115	22 11,466	19 11,441	23 13,132	23 14,360	23 14,683	26 14,616	30 15,879	11 8,092
Pulse	Rs. Tons.	20 13	9 6	9 6	8 5	6 4	10 6	8 5	6 5	9 7

^b Includes Coke and Patent Fuel.^c Figures represent both Indian and Foreign merchandise and are for 7 months ending October 1941.

TABLE 2. Exports from India to Burma [Indian merchandise] (Continued)

		Pre-War	War	Average	Post-War	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
		1909-13	1914-19	1920-24									
Wheat flour	Rs. Tons.	29 16	27 12	52 18	54 23	66 25	63 25	75 29	69 28	61 28	44 26	23 18	26 18
Iron and Steel	Rs. Cwts.	1 1	3 1								
Cigarettes	Rs. Lbs.	1* 83*	10 262								
Oil (Ground nut)	Rs. Gals.	23 1,227	14 750	28 1,167								
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	7 997	9 1,279	13 1,952								
Butter	Rs. Lbs.	4 423	7 525								
Ghee	Rs. Cwts.	25 39	22 30	34 31								
Boots and Shoes	Rs. Pairs.	1 43	8 210								

* Average for three years.

TABLE 2. Exports from India to Burma [Indian merchandise] (Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42‡
Wheat flour	Rs. Tons.	30 19	28 20	29 22	33 24	39 25	41 25	36 27	32 25	46 31	37 20
Iron and Steel	Rs. Cwts.	38 18	50 27	65 28	57 26
Cigarettes	Rs. Lbs.	53 1,835	58 1,993	54 1,460	50 1,080	51 1,090	80 1,845	56 1,022
Oil (Ground nut)	Rs. Gals.	23 1,377	26 1,667	25 1,885	36 3,125	49 3,912	78 6,036	39 3,071
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	15 3,239	19 4,163	33 7,741	11 1,917	21 2,663	30 3,115	11 1,055
Butter	Rs. Cwts.	6 631	4 499	4 466	4 471	5 479	5 481	2 242
Ghee	Rs. Cwts.	11 15	12 17	10 14	9 14	11 15	10 13	5 6
Boots and Shoes	Rs. Pairs.	9 1,370	7 1,223	10 1,626	8 1,221	12 1,140	15 1,275	11 932

‡ Figures represent both Indian and Foreign merchandise and are for 7 months ending October 1941.

TABLE 3. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND INDO-CHINA DURING 1911-40
 [Source :—Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India]
Imports from Indo-China to India
 (Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21
Rice	Rs. Nos.
Teak Wood	Rs. Cu. Tons	A	..	A	16	4	A
<i>Exports from India to Indo-China</i>											
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	19	23	54	61	34	67	47	100	57	75
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	7,491	8,813	17,669	20,391	11,184	19,967	12,605	23,237	12,376	17,373
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	122	218	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Cotton raw	Rs. Cwts.	49	15	19	44	33	82	94	120	130	52
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	3	1	1	4	3	5	4	115	39	1
		1	..	A	..	4	8	22	32	8	14
		2	..	B	..	13	tons 1	2	2	1	2
		A	1	A
		160	232	4	41

A — below Rs. 50,000.

B — below 500 units.

TABLE 3. Imports from French Indo-China (Continued)

		1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Rice	Rs. Tons.	24	192	8	5
Teak Wood	Rs. C. Tons.	..	1	3	A	5	3	21	146	5	5
					B	3	2	3	3	1	1

Exports to French Indo-China (Continued)

		1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	89	42	37	45	57	52	65	73	51	17
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	25,771	10,358	8,115	9,142	9,293	10,290	13,888	15,424	12,029	5,272
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	250	279	260	240	230	275	280	120	A	A
Cotton raw	Rs. Tons.	74	96	124	53	70	94	86	61	115	353
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	52	44	34	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
		5	4	72	74	99	36	66	29	39	8
				5	5	8	4	7	3	5	1

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 3. Imports from French Indo-China (Continued)

		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Rice	Rs.	17	18	16	61	64	37	2	9	255
Teak Wood	Rs. C. Tons.	22 1 B	21 1 B	26 1 5	105 4 1	105 1 1	64 3 3	3	15 5 2	358 3 4
<i>Exports to French Indo-China (Continued)</i>										
Jute bags										
Jute cloth	Rs. Nos.	4,682	22	7,402	11,823	19,803	25,875	23,849	22,777	25,985
Opium	Rs. Yds.	A	8,588	A	A	A	1	A	1	1
Cotton raw	Rs. Tons.	105	63	329	263	120	641	387	720	890
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	44	11	24	7

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 4. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SIAM DURING 1911—1942
 [Source : Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India]

Imports from Siam to India.

(Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Teak Wood	Rs. C.Tons.	35 38	25 24	21 16	33 23	27 18	39 21	16	73	53	48
Rice in the husk	Rs. Tons	27
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons

Exports from India to Siam.

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	10 3,433	20 6,140	46 13,023	43 12,236	41 12,823	40 11,380	58 14,460	36 6,048	31 5,689	20 4,606
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	1 168	2 287	2 324	3 514	4 828	5 1,108	9 1,172	6 493	11 953	18 789
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	8 3,594	10 4,551	1 4,913	1 3,927	10 4,598	10 6,307	13 5,252	13 1,167	14 5,680	16 2,695
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	29 2	39 3	25 2	31 3	28 2	29 2	45 2	44 3	43 2	38 2

TABLE 4. Imports from Siam to India (Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Teak Wood	Rs. C. Tons.	25	17	14	6	8	12	14	15	15	14	7
Rice in the husk	Rs. Tons.	16	11	11	4	5	8	9	10	10	11	6
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons.	B
	Rs. Tons.	12
	Rs. Tons.	15

Exports from India to Siam (Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	51 11,371	48 10,258	64 10,679	57 9,104	59 11,157	74 14,425	61 12,440	44 10,510	44 3,998	14 6,200	19 11,836
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	A
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	11 1,186	12 1,228	15 1,429	15 1,679	14 1,606	14 1,623	15 1,849	14 1,698	12 1,577	7 1,054	4 756
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	15 1,858	15 1,928	15 2,096	15 2,252	10 1,741	10 1,888	12 2,376	14 2,108	11 1,320	9 686	3 497
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	39 2	64 2	52 2	60 2	56 2	63 2	56 2	49 2	42 2	35 1	..

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 4. Imports from Siam to India (Continued)

		1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Teak Wood	Rs. C. Tons.	10	4	A	1	1	1	A	..	1
Rice in the husk	Rs. Tons.	2	20	13	3	..	5	18	B	..
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons.	30	40	22	6	..	9	34	2	..
	Rs. Tons.	54	247	61	15	A	21	15	3	..
				83	16	B	24	12
Exports from India to Siam (Continued)										
		1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	12,830	42,426	31,090	21,830	48 A	29	53	93	76
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	A	A	A	11	24	10	23,459	24,585	31
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	95	390	3	2	9	..	A	21,755	7,800
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	4	657	531	5	5	1	165	40	A
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	829	5	10	5	5	2	45
		894	1,072	1,383	534	4	1	368
		49	5	1,035	237	2	A
		2	290	102	..

A — below Rs. 50,000.

B — below 500 units.

TABLE 5. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND STRAITS SETTLEMENTS (MALAYA) DURING 1911-42

[Source :—Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India.]

Imports from Straits Settlements to India

(Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Canes and Rattans	Rs. Cwts.	5 48	4 43	6 63	4 46	4 43	4 47	5 53	5 38	5 46	5 50	6 54
Drugs and Medicines	Rs.	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	6	5	5
Total Fruits and Vegetables	Rs. Nos.	6 3,961	7 5,087	6 4,715	5 3,299	5 2,224	4 3,812	3 4,135	2 3,164	2 2,382	2 3,150	3 3,431
Coconuts	Rs. Nos.											
Dyeing and Tanning Articles	Rs.	8	9	8	7	7	8	11	13	15	13	10
Fish	Rs. Cwts.	21 130	21 134	23 132	21 130	17 90	17 79	13 52	9 49	10 49	14 68	13 66
Rice	Rs. Tons	1,141 cwtis.	A 2,600 cwtis.	18 224 cwtis.	23 320 cwtis.	61 835 cwtis.	15 10 cwtis.	2 2 cwtis.	A B	B B	A B	A B
Matches	Rs. Gross of boxes	10 N.A.	2 246	1 86	1 166	1 96	1 61	1 68	A 36	1 36	1 100	1 53
Metals, Tin	Rs. Cwts.	44 30	42 27	57 37	42 33	32 25	35 26	39 24	54 26	74 44	61 38	75 53

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 5. Imports from Straits Settlements to India—(Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Canes and Rattans	Rs. Cwts.	7 45	6 39	6 40	5 35	6 39	5 35	4 29	5 37	4 32	4 31
Drugs and Medicines	Rs.	7	4	3	5	7	5	6	5	5	3
Total Fruits and Vegetables	Rs.	1	1	1	1	2	12	10	10	9	9
Coconuts	Rs. Nos.	5 4,543	5 4,309	6 4,944	8 7,039	7 6,199	9 9,313	7 6,920	7 7,062	7 7,287	5 6,836
Dyeing and Tanning Substances	Rs.	9	12	10	11	11	9	8	10	8	7
Fish	Rs. Cwts.	18 69	24 80	26 96	31 114	32 114	29 112	21 82	20 79	17 67	8 36
Rice	Rs. Tons	1 B	A B	1 B	A B	A B	33 26	14 8	1 1	A B	A B
Matches	Rs. Gross of boxes	1 24	1 21	1 34	A 24	1 51	1 41	A 17	A 17	A 13	A B
Metals, Tin	Rs. Cwts.	46 36	61 42	80 49	94 54	93 49	119 64	75 47	77 55	53 53	41 44

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 5. Imports from Straits Settlements to India—(Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Canes and Rattans	Rs. Cwts.	4 30	3 24	3 27	3 26	3 27	4 32	4 34	4 29	4 27	6 35
Drugs and Medicines	Rs.	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total Fruits and Vegetables	Rs.	9	7	5	6	6	A	A	A
Coconuts	Rs. Nos.	6 9,013	5 9,514	4 9,326	5 10,889	5 10,282	A 8	A 10	A B
Dyeing and Tanning Articles	Rs.	7	5	5	6	5	5	7	6	8	6
Fish	Rs. Cwts.	9 44	10 45	12 53	14 67	12 58	..	A B	A B
Rice	Rs. Tons	A B	A B	A B
Matches	Gross of boxes	A B	A 1	A 5
Metals, Tin	Rs. Cwts.	46 47	53 37	67 44	74 51	57 41	80 53	63 48	110 68	76 42	134 71

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 5. Imports from Straits Settlements to India—(Continued)

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	
Oils, mineral	Rs. Gals.	5,856	4,307	3,917	12 8,225	32 7,532	29 5,374	23 1,250	4 2,180	7 8,518	37 10,216	42 3,266
Provisions	Rs.	22	27	29	25	24	27	29	41	53	42	43
Total Spices	Rs. lbs.	1,20,400	1,21,970	1,18,158	1,20,178	112 lbs.	119 lbs.	121 1,064 cwt.s.	110 925 cwt.s.	140 1,105 cwt.s.	119 1,024 cwt.s.	113 880
Betelnuts	Rs. Cwts. lbs.	1,16,398	1,18,033	1,14,687	1,20,646	104 lbs.	101 1,17,353 lbs.	101 1,015	89 880	131 1,084	126 996	111 893
Sugar	Rs. Tons cwt.s.	2 12	8 71	5 58	4 35	8 52	8 cwt.s.	49 15	205 62	189 63	96 18	65 9
Cotton manufactures	Rs.	11	8	5	3	6	5	5	3	5	14	6
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds. Lbs.	11	7	5	3	6	4	2	4	4	14	5
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	2,700	1,800	1,191	739	1,643	1,160	384	686	1,558	622	780
Silk raw	Rs. Lbs.	9 221	5 106	5 105	3 62	1 20	2 40	1 3	1 27	A B	A B	1 A
A—below Rs. 50,000.											B—below 500 units.	

TABLE 5. Imports from Straits Settlements to India—(Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32		
Oils, mineral	Rs. Gals.	28 6,425	25 5,556	9 1,425	43 7,541	34 7,370	29 7,135	26 7,618	93 24,412	22 7,135	5 2,313	TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND MALAYA	
Provisions	Rs.	43	41	51	46	55	42	36	32	32	24		
Total Spices	Rs. Cwts.	136 993	177 1,230	167 1,040	219 1,132	236 1,089	175	207	228	167	133		
Betelnuts	Rs. Cwts.	127 970	168 1,207	158 1,021	210 1,109	214 1,046	159 847	186 1,163	212 1,346	152 1,006	122 989		
Sugar	Rs. Tons	10 3	12 3	11 3	7 2	3 1	4 1	2 1	2 1	1 1	1 B		
Cotton manufactures	Rs.	22	23	29	25	21	20	17	8	4	2		
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	2,002	2,772	22 4,246	28 3,555	24 3,587	21		
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	A 21	A 1	A 2	A 12	A 4	2 157	4 301	A 14	A 2	A 20		
Silk raw	Rs. Lbs.	A 4	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B		
		A—below Rs. 50,000						B—below 500 units					

TABLE 5. Imports from Straits Settlements to India—(Continued)

	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF INDIA										
Oils, mineral Gals.	A 81	1 174	6 994	5 881	14 8,586	12 7,660	25 7,319	50 14,107	80 12,773	5 1,333
Provisions	Rs. 20	20	25	27	28	24	26	24	33	45
Total spices	Rs. 109	94	101	99	115	137	195	148	137	126
Betelnuts	Rs. 995	100 1,071	87 1,223	96 1,218	87 1,346	108 1,381	129 1,730	182 1,385	137 1,308	127 927
Sugar	Rs. Tons	1 B	A B	1 B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	4 2
Cotton manufactures	Rs.	2	2	1	2	1	A	A	A	1
Cotton piecegoods
Cotton twist and yarn Lbs.	Rs. 80	1	..	A B	A 20	A B	..	A 1	A 12	1
Silk raw
A—below Rs. 50,000										B—below 500 units

TABLE 5. Exports from India to Straits Settlements

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Animals living	Rs. Nos.	6 51	9 72	10 67	5 44	7 57	10 71	8 56	3 29	5 28	7 28	7 31
Coal and Coke	Rs. Tons	17 198	16 155	18 184	9 101	8 98	13 144	6 69	5 46	14 120	26 195
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons.	406 7,314	488 7,925	287 5,692	221 4,657	175 3,724	252 256	257 232	334 338	192 154	181 183	222 135
Hides and Skins	Rs. Tons.	A B	A 1	A B	A 5	2 B	1 B	2 B	5 1	7 1	7 1	7 1
Cordage and Rope	Rs. Cwts	3 15	3 17	5 22	4 16	4 19	4 18	4 25	4 23	7 29	7 25	7 25
Fodder and bran	Rs. Tons	16	20	15	12	11	8	5	4	26	56	26
Opium	Rs. Cwts	300 10	106 7	34 2	12 1	10 1	6 B	12 1	5 B	11 B	2 B	3 B
Provisions	Rs.	13	16	20	15	17	16	16	12	13	12	16

A—below Rs. 50,000

B—below 500 units

TABLE 5. Exports from India to Straits Settlements—(Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF INDIA	
Animals living	Rs. Nos.	4 18	5 19	8 49	8 50	10 55	11 92	7 60	7 54	4 32	2 11		
Coal and Coke	Rs. Tons	4 22	2 11	5 30	16 130	17 160	7 60	7 61	3 26	3 24		
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons.	276 174	304 202	330 209	326 224	312 204	273 191	228 176	300 229	279 265	167 233		
Hides and Skins	Rs. Tons.	5 1	1 B	1 B	1 B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B		
Cordage and Rope	Rs. Cwts.	6 22	9 31	9 28	11 36	11 37	11 40	9 37	9 33	6 26	5 23		
Fodder and bran	Rs. Tons.	26 44	27 52	17 31	15 27	17 39	13 26	9 18	14 29	10 36	4 18		
Opium	Rs. Cwts.		
Provisions	Rs.	16	17	16	18	21	21	21	22	17	11		
		A—below Rs. 50,000						B—below 500 units					

TABLE 5. Exports from India to Straits Settlements—(Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND MALAYA											
Animals living	Rs. Nos.	1 3	A 9	1 26	1 48	1 39	A 22	A 3	A 3	A 4	A 11
Coal and Coke	Rs. Tons.	2 21	1 6	2 30	1 17	1 19	4 43	1 8	16 166	16 150	13 134
Rice not in husk	Rs. Tons.	110 156	9 154	8 135	106 138	120 161	10 8	13 11	12 9	12 10	11 7
Hides and Skins	Rs. Tons.	1 B	1 B	1 B	1 B	1 B	..	A ..
Cordage and Rope	Rs. Cwts.	4 20	4 23	4 28	4 25	4 28	2 13	2 12	3 18	3 18	5 B
Fodder and bran	Rs. Tons.	2 7	3 16	3 13	5 17	4 12	B B	A B	.. B
Opium
Provisions	Rs.	10	7	8	8	9	10	11	13	12	13

A—below Rs. 50,000

B—below 500 units

TABLE 5. Exports from India to Straits Settlements—(Continued)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Seeds	Rs. Tons	8 61	7 62	9 63	7 58	11 71	16 7	76 56	20 11	14 5	12 4	11 4
Tobacco	Rs. Lbs.	13 3,558	15 3,703	16 3,727	16 3,537	14 3,230	11 3,000	13 3,300	16 3,900	18 3,400	16 3,200	16 3,600
Rubber raw	Rs. Lbs.	A B	2 1	2 1	1 1	3 2	7 433	4 282	1 76	3 395	2 253	3 699
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	26 4,485	26 4,576	27 4,787	24 4,786	30 4,565	34 4,776	37 3,810	62 2,616	63 4,057	63 3,785	39 2,698
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	54 12,973	64 15,287	72 17,948	60 14,958	94 17,722	89 20,511	84 17,923	121 19,185	143 20,075	152 20,561	155 20,083
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	24 8,942	29 8,922	35 10,660	36 10,759	38 10,431	29 7,185	28 6,072	41 7,036	75 13,517	36 7,331	39 9,243
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	A 216	A 215	A 299	1 304	A 238	1 337	A 141	2 982	2 983	2 283	2 1,578
Rope and twine	Rs. Cwts	2 17	3 17	5 27	5 25	5 25	3 19	7 23	7 22	7 21	5 22	4 19

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 5. Exports from India to Straits Settlements—(Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
F	Rs. Ls.	Rs. Tons	13 4	12 4	12 5	15 4	15 4	18 4	42 14	9 3	7 2
Tobacco	Rs. Lbs.	20 4,323	20 3,946	17 3,913	19 5,181	16 4,471	16 4,110	16 4,043	16 4,192	11 2,741	7 1,713
Rubber raw	Rs. Lbs.	8 1,487	14 2,077	25 3,473	62 4,331	47 5,181	47 5,242	27 5,396	23 5,524	12 4,894	8 5,031
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	19 1,619	15 1,416	9 831	11 1,037	11 1,178	11 1,061	11 1,132	8 928	5 516	5 741
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	157 27,762	160 23,431	132 21,268	162 26,160	155 25,426	135 22,514	114 19,740	106 17,935	62 11,133	48 9,198
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	28 5,301	52 10,644	63 11,034	102 15,526	89 16,321	80 15,638	67 12,765	63 13,876	41 11,504	47 15,570
Jute Cloth	Rs. Yds.	1 493	A 38	A 32	A 204	1 464	2 1,001	2 893	3 1,323	2 1,239	2 1,623
Rope and Twine	Rs. Cwts.	4 31	7 26	8 30	10 35	9 35	6 31	7 38	6 32	6 32	4 33

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 5. Exports from India to Straits Settlements—(Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Seeds	Rs. Tons.	5 2	7 4	8 6	7 3	5 3	10 5	8 5	12 7	15 11	22 16
Tobacco	Rs. Lbs.	4 909	4 1,224	4 1,281	4 1,099	4 1,130	2 715	2 732	2 832	2 677	11 903
Rubber raw	Rs. Lbs.	4 4,588	9 7,483	17 6,989	20 7,717	36 9,455
Cotton twist and yarn	Rs. Lbs.	3 469	4 569	6 699	6 1,274	7 1,396	18 3,706	29 5,538	15 3,190	15 2,960	15 2,499
Cotton piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	40 8,151	26 5,146	28 5,980	30 7,658	44 12,833	73 24,378	52 17,087	73 22,790	114 34,060	176 51,503
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	39 14,772	35 14,079	12 4,552	14 4,969	12 4,615	13 5,018	13 5,641	21 10,644	15 3,633	13 3,032
Jute Cloth	Rs. Yds.	3 2,692	2 1,840	3 2,800	11 9,884	16 15,795	21 20,115	5 5,406	11 6,037	12 6,770	14 6,821
Rope and Twine	Rs. Cwts.	3 25	4 38	4 39	3 29	4 34	4 32	3 27	7 37	4 26	6 40

TABLE 6. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND INDONESIA DURING 1911—42
 [Source :—*Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India*]
 (Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)
Imports from Java to India

TABLE 6. Imports from Java to India—(Continued)

	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Sugar	Rs. Tons.	1,263 431	1,352 432	1,524 537	1,379 727	1,408 707	1,415 789	1,570 919	1,297 852	985 911
Liquors	Rs. Gals.	8 535	7 486	6 463	8 603	11 759	14 994	10 785	12 1,053	452 1,068
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	2 356	8 1,047	3 368	6 816	11 1,536	22 2,643	28 4,108	28 3,406	5 1,388

Exports from India to Java—(Continued)

Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	A 215	A 210	1 272	1 458	1 611	2 686	2 1,001	2 850	1 850
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	106 19,844	93 17,344	159 24,868	232 31,930	172 26,987	146 25,769	226 42,081	168 37,288	1,037 41,646
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	54 2	36 1	12 B	56 2	60 2	48 2	39 1	24 1	96 29,606
Rice	Rs. Tons.	114 76	195 134	68 45	161 114	35 22	8 7	55 44	194 155	43 51
Oil cakes	Rs. Tons.	1 1	2 2	1 1 B	.. 1	.. 1	1 A	A 1

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 6. Imports from Java to India—(Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Sugar	Rs. Tons.	340 327	198 197	164 176	140 150	13 15	12 10	29 25	297 233	28 16	36 40
Liquors	Rs. Gals.	8 857	7 521	6 411	3 299	3 331	3 379	3 345	3 378	4 376	6 378
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	1 201	A 3	B B	B B	B

Exports from India to Java—(Continued)

Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	1 656	1 787	1 550	1 714	1 1,035	1 1,345	1 1,040	1 1,699	3 1,240	2 2,028
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	41 13,598	34 12,761	26 9,852	36 12,998	67 26,658	84 34,647	60 23,358	118 30,338	70 17,401	70 18,025
Opium	Rs. Cwts.
Rice	Rs. Tons	11 18	2 4	15 26	3 4	A 1	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B
Oil cakes	Rs. Cwts.

A—below Rs. 50,000

B—below 500 units

TABLE 6. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND INDONESIA DURING 1911-43
Imports from Sumatra to India

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Mineral Oils	Rs. Gals.	2,025	5 4,900	12 1,465	2 1,206	4 1,189	3 1,660	3 1,811	6 1,662	4 ..	A A 13
<i>Exports from India to Sumatra</i>											
Coal, Coke and Fuel	Rs. Tons.	10 110	13 130	9 98	6 73	6 70	7 80	1 8	1 9	7 56	6 53
Rice	Rs. Tons. cwt.s.	10 189	6 107	5 113	15 385	18 423	3 48	3 50	2 28	1 1	8 6
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	A 138	A 130	1 189	A 142	A 114	A 117	2 574	2 333	1 255	A 183
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	1 6	2 8	1 3	1 4	1 7	1 10	A 9	A 7	A 1	A 6

A—below Rs. 50,000

TABLE 6. Imports from Sumatra to India—(Continued)

		1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	1942-43
Mineral Oils	Rs. Galls.	13 2,203	43 9,996	17 4,899	53 13,544	157 36,757	13 3,511	50 13,195	60 9,739	8 799	8 1,104
<i>Exports from India to Sumatra—(Continued)</i>											
Coal, Coke and Fuel	Rs. Tons.	4	2	1	1	..	A	..
Rice	Rs. Tons.	41 70	40 70	49 75	33 47	1	..
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	1 623	2 795	2 898	4 1,929	3 1,627	2 959	5 1,540	7 1,855	2 604	..
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	A 229	A 150	A 184	A 213	A 285	A 240	2 918	1 298	1 557	..

A—below Rs. 50,000

TABLE 7. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND CHINA DURING 1911-42
 [Source : Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India]
 (Value in Laes of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)
Imports from China

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Drugs & Medicines	Rs.	8	6	6	5	7	4	5	7	10	7	10
Grains and Pulses	Rs. Tons	A 4 cwt., 1	A 2 cwt., 7	A 6 cwt., 6	A 4 cwt., 2	11 168 cwt., 1	1 1	A A B	6 2	19 6	1 B	2 1
Sugar	Rs. Tons	A 1 cwt., 17	A 1 cwt., 17	A 1 cwt., 11	A 5 cwt., 13	1 2 12	1 B	A B	1 B	1 B	A B	A B
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	7 3,834	7 1,590	7 2,272	11 2,757	13 2,587	13 1,799	11 4,001	30 3,946	39 1,840	19 1,402	43 4,381
Silk raw	Lbs.	1,310	2,584	1,782	1,495	1,616	1,365	1,260	864	1,880	1,353	1,278
Silk Piecegoods	Yds.	3,926	4,115	4,290	3,896	5,482	3,542	3,106	3,524	7,723	4,220	3,381
Silk manufactures	Rs.	38	38	39	34	48	38	46	72	137	85	65
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Lbs.	15 Annual average (1909-14)	15 Annual average (1909-14)	14 Annual average (1914-19)	160 160	2,285 2,285	22 22					
Cotton Piecegoods	Yds.	798	892	892	892	892	892	892	892	892	Annual average (1919-24) 2,368	Annual average (1919-24) 2,368

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 7.—Imports from China (Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Drugs & Medicines	Rs.	14	9	8	9	13	1	1	1	1	1	1
Grains and Pulses	Rs. Tons	2 1	1 B	A B	A B	8 3	2 1	7 4	25 4	7 16	7 16	7 6
Sugar	Rs. Tons	A B	1 B	1 B	A B	A B	A B	A B	1 1	2 1	3 1	2 1
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	38 5,054	64 10,390	47 6,166	39 5,126	42 4,520	30 3,524	23 2,582	20 3,741	20 1,388	19 2,780	18 3,017
Silk raw	Lbs.	1,443	1,102	940	1,169	1,065	1,976	1,711	1,964	1,623	1,356	2,563
Silk Piecegoods	Yds.	3,074	5,838	5,548	7,326	8,455	8,130	7,620	8,093	8,279	7,736	7,812
Silk manufactures	Rs.	63	111	94	95	124	117	92	86	75	64	62
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	.. 80	.. 140	4 399	1 56	8 930	115 12,045	128 11,397	110 10,495	96 11,723	92 13,215	84 13,305
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. Yds. 4,859	18 2,253	8 1,899	5 6,996	16 13,426	32 9,746	20 2,471	5 3,999	6 1	1 747

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 7.—Imports from China (Continued)

		1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Drugs & Medicines	Rs.	A	A	A	1	A	A	1	2	1
Grains and Pulses	Rs. Tons	4 3	2 2	3 2	3 3	5 4	8 7	9 8	3 2	A B
Sugar	Rs. Tons	2	3	1	3	1	1	2	1	A B
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	16 3,040	9 1,420	15 3,355	8 1,993	9 1,771	2 337	5 511	5 97	A 50
Silk raw	Lbs.	1,748	1,191	490	815	928	1,218	1,372	1,399	699
Silk Piecegoods	Yds.	5,746	4,462	3,808	3,260	3,006	3,753	3,023	1,972	1,592
Silk manufactures	Rs.	50	36	27	26	20	27	50	34	39
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	65 10,239	92 12,726	90 12,922	37 4,834	3 527	65 10,405	75 10,792	33 3,500	A 20
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	A 160	2 1,190	A 56	A 52	A 8	A 8	31 26,086	21 13,699	16 7,563

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 7.—Exports from India to China (Continued)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Cotton raw	Rs. Tons	18 48	47 118	34 cwt.s.	37 cwt.s.	90 cwt.s.	108 cwt.s.	50 cwt.s.	32 cwt.s.	199 cwt.s.	393 cwt.s.	833 76
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	362 73,363	427 89,003	410 83,257	248 52,982	305 69,380	316 77,563	183 55,899	796 16,735	289 60,625	23,403 17,556	159
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	A 212	2 1,121	1 625	A 71	A 365	A 252	A 76	A 254	A 615	A 88	A 22
Grains, Pulses & Flour	Rs. Tons	21 412	14 253	4 92	2 43	6 157	15 16	4 4	1 1	A A	5 4	26 17
Jute manufactures	Rs. Nos.	38 11,496	38 19,466	74 12,119	51 15,861	59 17,314	71 12,739	60 7,699	40 4,609	46 7,295	52 18,249	94 10,273
Jute bags	Yds. Nos.	2,499 3,279	3,279 4,244	4,244 ..	2,703 ..	5,317 ..	6,223 ..	4,119 ..	5,705 ..	4,171 ..	5,825 ..	3,366
Jute cloth	Rs. Lbs.	542 5,098	486 9,111	4 10,950	4 8,289	.. 9,766	.. 9,226	.. 46	.. 15	.. 2	.. A	A 15
Opium	Rs. Tons
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	21 5,098	41 9,111	51 10,950	39 8,289	.. 9,766	.. 9,226	.. 46	.. 15	.. 2	.. A	A 15
Paraffin Wax	Rs. Tons

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 7.—Exports from India to China. (Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Cotton raw	Rs. Tons.	1,051 88	685 47	778 50	1,213 96	769 69	199 19	729 72	934 110	741 108	450 77	133 23
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	2,662	991	9	3	1	1	164	75	22	..	A
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	A 37	A 54	A 76	A 90	A 22	A 147	A 137	1	A 191	A 52	A 87
Grains, Pulses & Flour	Rs. Tons.	197 167	248 150	71 47	221 149	267 181	151 100	68 53	219 226	492 396	265 396	180 353
Jute manufactures	Rs. Nos.	33	49	48	40	37	26	38	37	10	10	6
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	3,747	5,975	5,413	2,631	2,798	1,313	2,161	4,280	1,244	1,714	496
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	6,981	10,049	6,054	9,202	9,642	8,401	11,199	8,914	3,507	3,962	3,716
Opium	Rs. Rs.
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	A 6	A 10	1 189	12 2,063	4 487	25 3,545	48 6,140	A 12	13 1,741	6 1,202	A B
Paraffin Wax	Rs. Tons.	21 5	21 5	5 1	10 2	10 2	12 2	19 4	12 3	37 3	23 7	15 5

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 7.—Exports from India to China (Continued)

		1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	1942-43
Cotton raw	Rs. Tons	330 61	129 25	105 19	72 12	69 34	171 121	668 135	865 194	194 25	..
Cotton Twist and Yarn	Rs. Lbs.	1	1	3	1	A 6	A 3	..
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	A 100	A 2	A 19	A 2	A 32	A 46	349 22	A 6
Grains, Pulses & Flour	Rs. Tons	93 170	97 173	50 71	12 16	A B	A B
Jute manufactures	Rs. Nos.	4	5	3	8	91	10	25	13	6	..
Jute bags	Rs. Yds.	606	1,168	747	2,908	37,024	2,862	5,076	2,909	1,344	..
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	1,537	1,137	581	2,540	6,190	2,778	2,925	531	80	..
Opium	Rs.
Tea	Rs. Lbs.	A B	A B	..	1 62
Paraffin Wax	Rs. Yds.	5 1	9 2	8 2	5 2	14 1	3 1	3 1	2 B

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND JAPAN DURING 1911—40
 [Source :—Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India]
 Exports from India to Japan

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21
Raw Cotton	Rs. Tons	1,431 3,514	1,450 3,592	1,940 cwt. cwt.	1,431 15	4,455 17	2,590 cwt. cwt.	3,077 16	2,337 12	4,122 140	2,059 296
Raw Jute	Rs. Tons Rs.	11 4 7	15 5 7	17 4 15	15 3 29	5 4 27	17 4 34	3 8 88	11 7 70	34 10 70	19 7 72
Jute Manufactures including bags and cloth	Nos. Yds. Rs. Tons Rs. Tons.	2,328 474 5 7 170 2,818	2,129 245 8 10 272 4,825	4,107 483 7 12 162 3,233	9,335 382 8 7 8 162	7,078 245 11 7 8 8	7,775 470 12 4 3 B	18,375 2,886 17 6 A 42	16,686 1,945 17 5 190 206	21,322 800 34 5 A B	13,858 400 16 12 15 12
Jute bags	cwt. cwt.				cwt. cwt.	cwt. cwt.	cwt. cwt.	cwt. cwt.	cwt. cwt.		
Jute cloth											
Manures											
Rice	Tons.										
Iron and Steel	Rs. Tons	2	41	33	16	21	38	28	11	42	55
Oilcakes	Rs. Tons	4	81	65	30	39	78	41	10	40	48
Opium	Rs. Cwts. Rs.	15 502	23 726	30 929	16 341	21 38	23 19	23 7	11	18	12
Paraffin wax	Tons.	11	20	18	15	18	24	39	65	41	40
Lead	Rs. Cwts.

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8.—Exports from India to Japan (Continued)

		1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Raw Cotton	Rs. Tons.	3,255 314	3,448 289	4,262 307	4,588 298	4,747 372	3,440 328	2,199 220	2,903 281	2,730 293	2,099 301
Raw Jute	Rs. Tons.	24 12	38 14	35 67	50 49	61 47	31 41	35 32	37 12	44 16	12 6
Jute Manufactures including bags and cloth	Rs. Tons.	132	44	52	106	106	135	98	45	65	18
Jute bags	Nos. Yds.	35,765 500	10,808 200	11,375 475	18,580 406	16,757 303	24,901 1,337	18,700 700	8,800 400	15,700 100	5,400 104
Jute cloth	Rs. Tons.	29	12	21	19	23	16	12	19	7	5
Manures	Tons.	20	9	17	15	18	15	11	18	6	6
Rice	Rs. Tons.	70	126	212	363	418	180	226	10	5	1
		42	80	128	224	285	121	150	8	4	1
Iron and Steel	Rs. Tons.	52	87	106	115	68	120	139	187	180	80
Oilcakes	Rs. Tons.	58	114	153	173	168	265	318	424	419	211
		22	41	62	42	40	36	31	35	14	11
		22	14	67	49	47	41	34	37	16	15
Opium	Rs. Cwts.	5 B	5 B	4 B	2 B	6 B
Paraffin wax	Rs. Cwts.	28 6	35 8	24 5	16 4	1 B	..	12 ..	5 3	8 1	27 6
Lead	Rs. Cwts.	44 253	36 181	62 269	53 226	26 117	15 82	11 72	17 104	19 131

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8.—Exports from India to Japan (Continued)

		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	
EI	Raw Cotton	Rs.	1,105 193	1,112 194	1,138 197	2,153 367	1,794 314	2,541 433	1,479 212	1,127 216	1,077 188
Raw Jute	Rs. Tons	17 10	23 14	24 17	32 23	40 24	58 35	28 15	28 12	43 14	
Jute Manufactures including bags and cloth	Rs. Nos. Yds.	13	25	14	43	52	67	9	9	3	
Jute bags	Rs. 100	4,600 400	9,400 3	6,200 A	18,200 1,100	19,800 1,400	30,300 700	5,100 1,700	2,800 A	600 A	
Jute cloth Manures	Rs. Tons	6 11	3 4	B A	A B	1 3	B 7	B 4	B A	1 A	
Rice	Rs. Tons	A B	62 74	A B	3 4	7 9	48	B B	B B	B B	
Iron and Steel	Rs. Tons	85 278	51 170	66 270	68 299	105 454	96 405	156 436	203 789	165 382	
Oilcakes	Rs. Tons	24 38	11 20	7 21	6 17	3 8	5 13	8 20	A R	
Opium	Rs. Cwts. 7	.. 1 A	.. 1	.. A	.. B	
Paraffin wax	Rs. Cwts.	4 1	1 1 B	.. B	.. B	.. B	
Lead	Rs. Cwts.	39 286	21 179	17 151	41 375	55 392	59 313	

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21
Apparel	Rs. 9	11	10	6	13	20	21	32	44	31
Ale, beer, port	Rs. A	A	A	1	4	11	22	37	34	7
Gals.	Rs. B	1	5	64	254	600	888	1,077	105	228
Cotton Hosiery	Rs. 66	62	84	67	56	128	92	74	122	139
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs. 1	11	18	29	69	243	327	1,065	369	837
Yds.	Yds. 622	5,881	8,901	16,002	39,102	1,00,122	94,655	23,826	75,953	1,70,339
Cotton Twists and yarn	Rs. 8	5	14	12	78	53	83	533	61	490
Lbs.	Lbs. 587	384	1,000	922	702	4,008	4,206	27,280	1,918	20,123
Glass and Glasswares	Rs. 8	..	A	2	15	37	29	25	35	44
Bangles	Rs. 7	16	6	6	6	14	18	12	16	24
Beads and false pearls	Rs. 2	16	9	10	7	9	12	8	13	9
Bottles and phials	Rs. A	3	4	8	15	25	14	19	19	24
Gross	Rs. 6	80	143	172	254	216	455	171	203	235
Funnels, globes, etc.	Rs. A	1	1	3	2	9	17	10	16	11
Nos.	Nos. 1	B	1	B	2	2	3	2	4	4
Matches	Rs. 23	39	39	69	106	91	202	153	187	130
Gross	N.A. 73	7,100	10,400	15,200	9,200	15,000	10,000	13,900	9,993	9,993
Metals	Rs. 22	9	41	40	25	1,670	3,030	11,430	89	71
Tons	Tons 2	1	4	5	2	5	12	26	7	4
Brass and Bronze	Rs. A	A	A	A	6	23	48	90	36	45
Cwts.	Rs. B	B	B	B	9	29	49	81	39	48
Iron and Steel	Rs.	1	2	9	34	99	4	5
Copper	Tons 19	9	41	38	16	7	53	40	31	7
Aluminium	Cwts. 39	16	70	69	25	6	39	33	40	9
Hardware	Cwts. Rs. 3	10
Instruments	Rs. 1	4	6	5	18	49	68	93	75	76
		1	1	3	12	46	49	49	12	18

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8.—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

		1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Apparel	Rs.	11	12	8	10	11	13	14	20	19	19
Ale, beer, port	Rs.	8	3	2	2	2	3	3	4	5	5
Gals.	Rs.	255	105	90	131	100	146	190	231	288	279
Cotton Hosiery	Rs.	45	64	75	86	111	118	114	125	123	77
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs.	367	423	463	575	688	658	825	889	1,270	593
Cotton Twist and yarn	Yds.	90,275	1,07,778	1,22,667	1,55,303	2,16,826	2,43,587	3,23,053	3,57,343	5,61,966	3,20,776
Glass and Glasswares	Rs.	226	320	285	453	425	320	224	124	164	84
Glass and Glasswares	Lbs.	14,915	26,547	20,430	32,325	33,525	26,619	16,975	7,632	10,870	6,895
Bangles	Rs.	33	33	38	26	24	21	26	22	25	20
Beads and false pearls	Rs.	15	15	16	13	11	10	8	10	10	5
Cwts	Cwts	7	10	10	11	12	13	11	14	14	9
Bottles and phials	Rs.	11	11	10	10	10	12	11	12	14	12
Gross	Gross	173	191	248	285	280	346	322	373	490	445
Funnels, globes, etc.	Rs.	7	4	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	1
Nos.	Nos.	2	115	70	41	25	11	3	1	1	1
Matches	Rs.	185	5,555	3,497	2,201	952	330	79	52	20	20
Gross	Gross	12,694	8,320	5,555	3,497	2,201	952	330	79	52	20
Metals	Rs.	7	19	7	13	39	37	34	39	47	37
Tons	Tons	B	2	1	1	4	4	4	4	5	5
Brass and Bronze	Rs.	2	13	7	12	37	33	31	36	33	25
Cwts.	Cwts.	2	20	10	20	73	66	62	72	61	51
Iron and Steel	Rs.	1	2	A	A	A	A	3	2	4	3
Tons	Tons	B	1	B	B	B	B	1	1	1	2
Copper	Rs.	2	1	A	A	A	A	A	A	4	1
Cwts.	Cwts.	4	1	B	B	B	B	B	B	7	1
Aluminium	Rs.	1	2	A	A	A	A	1	5	1	1
Hardware	Cwts	B	1	B	B	B	B	1	6	1	1
Instruments	Rs.	21	33	26	27	37	29	27	29	26	21
	Rs.	6	6	4	3	5	4	5	7	12	10

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

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TABLE 8.—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Apparel	Rs.	21	25	30	35	29	41	28	9	11
Ale, beer, port	Rs.	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	6	6
	Gals.	260	416	526	488	599	618	540	549	514
Cotton Hosiery	Rs.	42	61	73	54	46	29	25	14	9
Cotton Piecegoods	Rs.	545	785	443	520	635	558	459	513	513
Cotton Twist and yarn	Yds.	3,39,782	5,79,735	3,40,041	3,73,774	4,95,738	4,16,947	3,06,045	4,24,808	3,93,265
Glass and Glasswares	Lbs.	6,206	18,149	11,684	11,339	21,307	15,830	14,044	21,169	27,164
Bangles	Rs.	15	22	13	18	14	15	14	13	10
Beads and false pearls	Rs.	3	5	5	4	5	5	6	5	3
Bottles and phials	Cwts.	8	16	14	11	12	11	10	9	6
Funnels, globes, etc.	Gross	331	683	12	10	12	16	14	19	14
Matches	Nos.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Metals	Gross	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
	Rs.	25	67	76	101	116	117	116	116	116
Brass and Bronze	Tons.	4	16	24	31	38	36	36	36	36
Iron and Steel	Rs.	17	41	33	40	44	23	23	23	23
Copper	Cwts.	46	131	117	149	162	78	27	3	8
Aluminium	Rs.	4	14	27	33	43	47	61	42	63
Hardware	Tons.	1	8	15	18	25	27	22	17	24
Instruments	Rs.	4	7	9	20	14	16	7	1	10
	Cwts.	10	22	31	71	51	53	17	2	20
	Rs.	16	30	35	32	36	34	30	21	25
	Rs.	8	23	30	31	31	31	37	19	29

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21
Brushes and brooms	Rs. Doz.	..	A ..	1 63	1 77	1 52	1 88	3 171	4 192	3 136
Buttons of all sorts	Rs. Rs.	2 79
Chemicals	Rs. Rs.	15 15
Sulphur	Rs. (Brimstone)	14 14
Cement	Cwts.	13	25	30	28	35	33	191	96	.. 79
Cutlery	Cwts.	..	A B	A 2	A 94	13	11	6	17	10 A
Coal, Coke, etc.	Rs. Tons.	..	A 2	A 17	A 13	7	1	5	4	5 5
Drugs and medicines (other than camphor)	Rs. Rs.	14	108	74	41	4	5	7	12	10 10
Earthenware and Porcelain	Rs.	..	2	6	4	5	6	7	12	10 9
Haberdashery and Millinery	Rs.	13	11	15	11	12	26	16	19	22 30
Machinery and Millwork	Rs.	A	A	2	2	8	13	20	25	8 12
Paints and Painters' Materials	Rs.	2	3	12	49	8 2
Paints and Colours	Cwts.
Camphor	Rs. Lbs.	860	1,039	1,054	1,323	1,704	1,593	1,350	428	163 312
Silk raw	Rs. Lbs.	..	A 8	1	9	1	3	4	8	A 6
Silk piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	51	119	134	118	172	23	47	109	175 73
Paper and pasteboard	Rs. Cwts.	19,544	22,417	19,536	10,745	17,127	12,980	12,414	10,393	16,559 220
Rubber manufactures	Rs. Cwts.	128 104
Soap	Rs. Cwts.	1	2	A 1	1	1	11	8	7	2 2

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Brushes and brooms	Rs. Doz.	A 2	A 14	A 26	A 47	A 70	A 87	A 195	A 133	A 208
Buttons of all sorts	Rs. Rs. Doz.	13 3	8	10	9	10	12	9	9	8
Chemicals	Rs. Rs. Cwts	..	A ..	A 1	A 2	A 2	A 2	A 4	A A	A 5
Sulphur (Brimstone)	Rs. Tons.	.. 17	5 3	A A	2 2	2 2	2 4	2 4	2 6	2 7
Cement	Rs. Tons.	18	4	B B	4	6	9	9	14	19
Cutlery	Rs. Rs. Rs. Tons.	2
Coal, Coke, etc.	Rs. Rs. Tons.	21	14	A 1	1	3	A 1	2	A 1	A 1
Drugs and medicines (Other than camphor)	Rs. Rs.	6	6	3	3	7	9	8	6	8
Earthenware and Porcelain	Rs. Rs.	21	25	24	29	35	33	33	25	31
Haberdashery and Millinery and Machinery and Millwork	Rs. Rs. Rs. Lbs.	7	12	11	16	24	15	22	20	20
Paints and Painters' Materials	Rs. Cwts	4	2	4	3	3	3	2	5	6
Camphor	Rs. Lbs.	14 418	13 426	27 822	19 698	17 724	18 871	17 858	18 973	19 1,002
Silk raw	Rs. Lbs.	A 1	1	7	6	1	1	3	7	2
Silk piecegoods	Rs. Yds.	122 1,538	131 8,933	119 7,619	133 9,601	107 8,048	118 9,487	133 11,383	126 12,637	126 13,392
Paper and pasteboard	Rs. Cwts	9 44	3 4	3 6	3 19	5 42	7 40	8 90	10 ..	11 136
Rubber manufactures	Rs. Cwts.	.. 1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Soap	Rs. Cwts	.. 1	A 1	A 1	A B	A B	A B	A B	A 1	A 1

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

		1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Brushes and brooms	Rs. Doz.	1 154	2 381	2 7	2 230	2 12	2 10	2 10	2 367	2 472
Buttons of all sorts	Rs. Rs.	4 ..	7 ..	7 ..	7 ..	10 ..	11 ..	7 ..	298 ..	208 ..
Chemicals	Rs. Rs.	.. A	.. 31	.. 97	.. 6	.. 119	.. 248	.. 8	.. 7	.. 4
Sulphur (Brimstone)	Cwts. Rs.	2 ..	1 ..	4 ..	4 ..	8 ..	235 ..	184 ..	96 ..	9 ..
Cement	Tons. Rs.	.. 29	.. 39	.. 27	.. 18	.. 10	.. 8	.. 5	.. 5	.. A
Cutlery	Rs. Rs.	.. A	.. A	.. A	.. A	.. A	.. A	.. A	.. B	.. B
Coal, Coke, etc.	Tons. Rs.	.. 1	.. B	.. 5	.. 3	.. 6	.. 6	.. 1	.. B	.. A
Drugs and medicines (other than camphor)	Tons. Rs.	.. 9	.. 7	.. 5	.. 3	.. 6	.. 6	.. 4	.. 4	.. 16
Earthenware and Porcelain	Rs. Rs.	17 ..	32 ..	26 ..	26 ..	26 ..	27 ..	28 ..	21 ..	19 ..
Haberdashery and Millinery	Rs. Rs.	10 ..	19 ..	17 ..	32 ..	26 ..	32 ..	36 ..	18 ..	24 ..
Machinery and Millwork	Rs. Rs.	4 ..	4 ..	8 ..	11 ..	18 ..	18 ..	49 ..	30 ..	19 ..
Paints and Painters' Materials	Rs. Rs. Cwts. Lbs.	4 .. 8 451	7 .. 12 748	7 .. 14 1,034	9 .. 12 1,072	11 .. 15 1,227	11 .. 11 981	11 .. 11 812	12 .. 12 57	21 .. 21 1,147
Camphor	Rs. Lbs.	2 34	5 165	7 220	7 897	12 1,625	12 1,074	12 1,405	12 274
Silk raw	Rs. Lbs.	.. 72	.. 133	.. 147	.. 101	.. 72	.. 63	.. 73	.. 45	.. 31
Silk piecegoods	Yds. Rs.	11,745 10	26,768 16	34,269 12	27,797 11	21,718 12	16,172 12	18,715 12	11,801 20	4,921 13
Paper and pasteboard	Cwts. Rs.	136 ..	211 13	161 18	160 19	194 19	182 19	182 18	233 12	24 22
Rubber manufactures	Cwts. Rs.	.. A	.. 1	.. 6	.. 3	.. 1	.. 1	.. 1	.. 1	.. A
Soap	Cwts. Rs.	.. 1	.. 4	.. 39	.. 16	.. 7	.. 7	.. 1	.. 2	.. 1

A—below Rs. 50,000.
B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8.—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	
Stationery (excluding paper)	Rs.	2	2	3	2	7	17	15	14	13	14	
Tea-Chests	Rs.	1	1	1	3	7	10	34	45	11	5	
Toilet requisites	Rs.	..	1	2	2	3	5	7	10	10	10	78
Toys and game requisites	Rs.	3*	3	5	3	12	17	12	16	25	18	
Umbrella fittings	Rs.	5	4	7	4	3	8	8	6	9	9	
Woolen manufactures	Rs.	A	A	A	A	5	25	14	33	8	23	
Woolen and Worsted piecegoods	Yds.	

A—below Rs. 50,000.

TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND JAPAN

TABLE 8.—Imports into India from Japan (Continued)

	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Stationery (excluding paper)	Rs. 5	5	4	5	5	4	6	7	7	5
Tea-Chests	Rs. 1	A	A	A	A	A	A	1	1	1
Toilet requisites	Rs. 3	6	3	3	4	3	4	4	6	3
Toys and game requisites	Rs. 9	10	9	14	12	11	14	16	19	13
Umbrella fittings	Rs. 10	14	19	14	13	14	16	11	10	9
Woolen manufactures	Rs. 1	7	7	12	21	11	12	3	5	3
Woolen and Worsted piecegoods	Yds. ..	518	532	1,048	2,061	1,230	1,414	326	712	568

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 8.—*Imports into India from Japan (Continued)*

	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Stationery (excluding paper)	Rs.	5	10	9	10	13	15	17	13
Tea-Chests	Rs.	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	3
Toilet requisites	Rs.	3	8	10	11	10	10	12	8
Toys and game requisites	Rs.	10	23	34	31	26	24	26	21
Umbrella fittings	Rs.	10	15	17	17	18	12	18	8
Woollen manufactures	Rs.	2	14	33	136	78	89	133	82
Woollen and Worsted piecegoods	Yds.	121	1,413	2,090	6,859	2,834	3,200	4,530	1,254

TABLE 9. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS DURING 1911-42

[Source : Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India]

Imports from Philippines to India.

(Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Cordage and rope	Rs. Cwts.	A 1	A B 5	A B 5	A B 6	A B 8	A B 14	A B 1	A B 1	A B 3	A B 1	
Hemp raw	Rs. Cwts.	4 25	27	21	32	33	46	37	47	15	26	9
Tobacco	Rs. Lbs.	A 15	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1
		16	18	19	23	16	16	16	25	61	32	11

Exports from India to Philippines

Oils (Linseed)	Rs. Gals.	1	A 9	A 9	A 15	A 44	A 10	A 5	A 7	A 5	A ..	A 6
Jute bags	Rs. Nos.	24	A 1	A 1	A 2	A 1	A 2	A 1	A 3	A 13	A 5	A 10
Jute cloth	Rs. Yds.	2,346	1,876	2,548	4,065	1,418	463	530	1,109	2,870	8	18
Lace	Rs. Cwts.	A B	A 1	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 9. Imports from Philippines to India—(Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Cordage and rope	Rs.	A	A	A	A	1	2	1	2	1	1
	Cwts.	B	B	B	B	3	4	4	7	4	5
Hemp raw	Rs.	5	6	7	10	8	9	6	7	3	2
	Cwts.	21	24	22	30	25	32	23	24	15	12
Tobacco	Rs.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
	Lbs.	13	13	12	16	15	21	17	23	21	149

Exports from India to Philippines—(Continued)

Oils (Linseed)	Rs.	1	1	1	A	1	A	1	A	1	1
	Gals.	18	24	25	16	8	25	19	32	21	16
Jute bags	Rs.	14	7	10	14	14	14	16	20	13	10
	Nos.	4,143	2,531	2,881	3,763	4,849	4,564	5,226	7,169	5,166	5,558
Jute cloth	Rs.	17	18	17	22	13	29	26	33	28	25
Yds.	Rs.	6,917	8,185	6,860	7,309	6,224	12,347	10,327	14,591	15,840	16,177
Iac	Rs.	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	A
	Cwts.	B	B	B	B	1	B	1	B	1	1

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 9. Imports from Philippines to India—(Continued)

		1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
Cordage and rope	Rs.	A	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
	Cwts.	2	4	8	7	5	4	6	6	11	8
Hemp raw	Rs.	2	2	2	3	5	8	3	6	27	17
	Cwts.	15	19	19	22	32	42	26	36	96	93
Tobacco	Rs.	1	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
	Lbs.	11	10	7	9	10	8	8	8	2	25

Exports from India to Philippines—(Continued)

Oils (Linseed)	Rs.	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	1	1
Jute bags	Gals.	16	24	3	17	48	22	27	74	33	61
	Rs.	12	12	9	10	8	10	7	10	15	23
Nos.	5,679	6,381	4,473	5,295	4,859	6,263	4,986	4,178	5,450	6,518	
Rs.	33	28	19	23	32	28	25	40	53	42	
Yds.	20,932	17,820	13,665	17,488	26,144	23,796	22,784	22,828	23,435	17,682	
Lac	Rs.	1	A	1	A	1	2	A	1	1	
Cwt.	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 10. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND AUSTRALIA DURING 1911—43

[Source :—Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India]

Imports from Australia to India

(Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)

		1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Coal	Rs.	6	15	8	5	4	6	2	1	1	11	29
	Tons	36	95	47	32	19	23	8	3	4	34	88
Horses	Rs.	33	24	24	41	37	58	42	26	4	18	6
	Nos.	7	5	6	10	7	13	8	5	1	3	1
Railway plant and materials	Rs.	43	33	29	15	1	1	12	21
Tallow and stearine	Rs.	1	1	2	3	2	2	1	1	9	24	10
	Cwts.	5	5	8	9	9	4	2	3	19	43	25
Wool raw	Rs.	3	3	4	2	5	5	..	3	..	3	5
	Lbs.	446	460	523	296	571	424	101	187	..	171	446
Wheat	Rs.	2	1	1	1	4	12	258	..	832
	Tons	21	9	12	9	2	6	148	..	400
	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	tons	tons
<i>Exports from India to Australia.</i>												
Jute bags and cloth	Rs.	162	177	300	265	293	373	353	470	215	470	272
Jute bags	Rs.	42,639	38,125	64,869	53,625	59,038	75,527	66,746	70,876	29,522	91,392	56,148
Jute cloth	Nos.	19,543	20,619	25,752	27,487	23,973	27,986	25,724	21,621	12,332	13,993	15,985
Oils (Linseed and castor)	Rs.	10	5	5	5	5	3	8	..	1	2	1
Rice	Gals.	648	349	421	365	337	206	314	200	33	65	31
	Rs.	23	34	19	23	30	14	40	1	A	30	23
	Tons	484	670	414	543	701	15	46	10	13	18	14
Seeds	Rs.	3	5	6	6	11	20	23	36	22	43	28
	Tons	23	57	80	77	157	12	16	20	6	14	12
Tea	Rs.	3	40	47	53	50	25	49
	Lbs.	9,582	8,969	9,395	10,547	5,155	4,618	9,920	7,027	7,044	5,937	7,527
Hides and skins	Rs.	4	4	2	3	3	9	26	25	22	10	11
	Tons	6	5	2	3	4	B	1	1	B	B	B
	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	tons.

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 10. Imports from Australia to India—(Continued)

		1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Coal	Rs.	10	22	5	4	3	2	1	2	1	1	1
	Tons	24	61	14	12	13	9	1	2	1	4	3
Horses	Rs.	10	6	6	11	25	20	20	10	10	29	5
	Nos.	2	1	1	2	5	3	3	3	3	4	1
Railway plant and materials	Rs.	9	18	..	8	24	1
Tallow and stearine	Rs.	12	12	15	16	19	18	18	23	20	16	20
	Cwts.	35	33	40	44	57	62	58	75	80	97	113
Wool raw	Rs.	8	16	19	9	3	10	17	22	10	15	18
	Lbs.	804	1,729	1,634	632	365	1,228	1,841	2,430	1,613	2,916	3,051
Wheat	Rs.	18	14	..	61	67	109	767	466	179	72	29
	Tons	10	8	..	35	40	69	529	336	209	110	33

TABLE 10. Exports from India to Australia—(Continued)

Jute bags and cloth	Rs.	372	424	538	568	621	518	591	421	358	243	331
Jute bags	Rs.	62,859	79,153	73,424	69,799	85,747	76,529	91,306	73,307	88,304	68,045	98,625
Cloth	Yds.	23,396	21,883	30,113	30,353	26,515	24,552	22,172	26,023	18,350	19,853	24,808
Oils (linseed and castor)	Rs.	1	2	1	1	1	1	A	A	A	A	A
Rice	Gals.	38	74	48	48	27	22	19	24	16	9	13
	Rs.	50	25	42	39	17	30	11	6	1	3	4
Seeds	Rs.	32	15	25	26	11	19	8	4	1	3	5
	Tons	33	38	44	52	31	40	46	53	22	13	11
Tea	Rs.	12	15	16	20	15	19	22	23	11	11	10
Hides and skins	Rs.	26	29	35	41	56	22	36	31	29	13	8
	Lbs.	3,983	4,300	4,363	5,854	8,008	2,796	5,521	4,533	4,500	2,509	1,639
	Tons	10	9	7	7	10	11	10	21	15	7	9

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 10. Imports from Australia to India—(Continued)

Coal		1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	1942-43
Horses	Rs.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Tons	6	4	5	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	Rs.	19	15	15	8	25	21	9	2	2	2
Railway plant and materials	Nos.	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	1	1	1
	Rs.
Tallow and stearine	Rs.	16	18	22	17	19	16	22	13	39	27
	Cwts.	93	115	101	85	103	107	141	75	183	87
Wool raw	Rs.	18	21	27	35	50	36	49	107	242	218
	Lbs.	2,831	3,049	4,548	3,816	4,995	4,448	4,882	6,731	18,597	14,138
Wheat	Rs.	13	5	10	..	21	11	61	21	25	..
	Tons	18	7	13	..	20	15	85	19	18	..

TABLE 10. Exports from India to Australia—(Continued)

Jute bags and cloth	Rs.	242	197	218	237	204	199	363	415	493	428
Jute bags	Rs.	78,859	5,62,623	64,885	79,570	66,901	65,664	70,559	73,229	85,474	60,615
Jute cloth	Yds.	19,894	24,125	26,544	30,132	30,789	30,991	41,223	36,523	53,451	38,746
Oils (Linseed and castor)	Rs.	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
Rice	Gals.	11	26	12	16	23	31	47
Seeds	Tons.	2	2	3	4	..	A	A	A	A	B
Tea	Rs.	5	4	5	5	..	B	B	B	B	B
Hides and skins	Tons.	15	29	17	31	40	29	59	70	85	121
	Rs.	14	24	13	21	25	22	36	45	56	52
	Lbs.	1,986	1,585	1,866	1,034	886	1,343	3,678	649	7,950	110
	Tons	B	B	B	B	1	1	1	1	B	B

A—below Rs. 50,000.

B—below 500 units.

TABLE 11. TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND NEW ZEALAND DURING 1911-41
 [Source :—Annual Statements of the Seaborne Trade of British India;
 Exports from India to New Zealand
 (Value in Lacs of Rupees and Quantity in thousand units)]

	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
Oil (Castor)											
Rs.	3	3	3	4	4	4	8	12	2	4	1
Gals.	197	163	175	214	285	200	232	317	52	135	20
Rs.	29	39	37	40	37	40	37	61	39	51	35
Nos.	6,834	8,707	8,003	9,231	9,577	8,445	6,710	8,506	4,549	9,721	7,387
Jute bags											
Rs.	2	4	4	5	5	12	7	6	5	9	4
Yds.	1,581	2,262	1,904	2,310	3,033	5,852	3,334	5,113	1,801	3,281	1,716
Jute cloth											
Rs.	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	2	1	1	1
Lbs.	442	426	303	443	436	542	836	371	739	535	762

Imports from New Zealand to India

Provisions	Rs.	A	1	A	1
Tallow and Stearine	Rs.
Wool raw	Cwts.
	Rs.
	Lbs.

A — below Rs. 50,000.

B — below 500 units.

TABLE 11. Exports from India to New Zealand—(Continued)

Imports from New Zealand to India—(Continued)

Provisions	Rs.
Tallow and Stearine	Rs.	A	1	1	2	2	2
Cwts.	Cwts.	B	1	3	7	11	11
Rs.	Lbs.	1	1	2	2	A	A
Wool raw	1	2,200	183	106

A = below B_s 50000

B = below 500 units

TABLE 11. Exports from India to New Zealand—(Continued)

	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	1942-43
Oil (Castor)										
Rs.	A	A	A	A	A	A	2	7	4	5
Gals.	30	31	20	17	20	15	77	270	164	163
Rs.	28	31	27	31	31	27	50	87	43	54
Jute bags	8,773	10,189	9,610	13,305	14,021	13,139	16,586	20,829	9,579	11,160
Nos.	6	6	6	6	7	5	11	20	13	18
Rs.	4,427	4,316	4,304	4,338	4,958	4,129	5,400	9,174	5,498	7,465
Yds.	13	7	2	1	15	18	48	25	11	A
Rs.	2,497	1,116	407	181	266	287	775	398	1,111	29
Lbs.										

Imports from New Zealand to India—(Continued)

Provisions	Rs.	1	2	2	3	3	5	5	5	1
Tallow and Stearine	Rs.	1	1	1	10	7	8	1
Cwts.	4	5	5	50	53	44	38	6
Rs.	A	..	A	1	A	A	10	10	29	36
Wool raw	Lbs.	23	..	66	13	96	14	14	11,596	2,642
										2,523

A—below Rs. 50,000

TABLE 12. BALANCE OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH EAST ASIAN AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES DURING 1911—42 [In Lacs of Rupees]
 [Source:—Statistical Abstract for British India.]

Country	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
CEYLON											
Exports to	854	918	904	771	939	1,052	1,000	1,053	1,125	1,188	1,211
Imports from	69	76	81	79	96	124	241	203	251	191	133
Balance	+785	+842	+823	+692	+843	+928	+759	+760	+874	+997	+1,033
CHINA											
Exports to	1,009	1,100	570	403	537	607	436	281	1,082	836	1,107
Imports from	155	206	170	157	193	165	207	247	383	303	263
Balance	+854	+894	+400	+246	+344	+442	+229	+34	+699	+533	+847
FRENCH INDO-CHINA											
Exports to	74	43	76	106	73	158	166	252	109	145	222
Imports from	B	B	B	B	2	B	B	6	5	B	1
Balance	+74	+43	+76	+106	+71	+158	+166	+246	+104	+145	+221
JAPAN											
Exports to	1,675	1,874	2,269	1,567	1,845	2,825	3,416	2,949	4,686	2,424	3,863
Imports from	348	407	478	445	750	1,333	1,826	3,353	1,915	2,643	1,358
Balance	+1,327	+1,467	+1,791	+1,122	+1,095	+1,492	+1,590	+404	+2,771	+219	+2,510
JAVA											
Exports to	427	324	193	184	181	280	267	345	196	291	397
Imports from	947	954	1,075	822	1,344	1,326	1,172	1,116	1,964	1,562	2,371
Balance	-520	-630	-882	-638	-1,163	-1,046	-905	-771	-1,768	-1,271	-1,974
SUMATRA											
Exports to	27	27	19	28	33	62	63	35	15	20	52
Imports from	5	12	2	4	7	5	6	1	B	B	B
Balance	+22	+15	+17	+24	+26	+57	+57	+29	+14	+19	+52

TABLE 12. BALANCE OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH EAST ASIA AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES DURING 1911—42—(Continued)

Country	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
CEYLON										
Exports to	1,301	1,317	1,417	1,522	1,486	1,588	1,425	1,322	1,138	796
Imports from	144	129	136	170	137	190	210	180	143	137
Balance	+1,157	+1,188	+1,281	+1,352	+1,349	+1,398	+1,215	+1,142	+995	+659
CHINA										
Exports to	1,363	1,053	957	1,544	1,122	447	944	1,302	1,321	780
Imports from	287	336	277	261	331	441	432	410	333	279
Balance	+1,076	+717	+680	+1,283	+791	+6	+512	+892	+988	+501
FRENCH INDO-CHINA										
Exports to	187	239	179	232	192	227	170	161	81	74
Imports from	1	3	1	7	5	28	195	10	6	19
Balance	+186	+236	+178	+225	+187	+199	-25	+151	+75	+55
JAPAN										
Exports to	4,077	5,098	5,680	5,795	4,127	2,919	3,462	3,256	2,387	1,403
Imports from	1,442	1,382	1,712	1,919	1,647	1,790	1,768	2,359	1,451	1,334
Balance	+2,635	+3,716	+3,968	+3,976	+2,480	+1,129	+1,694	+897	+936	+69
JAVA										
Exports to	293	358	266	476	295	234	360	421	259	175
Imports from	1,289	1,403	1,546	1,404	1,442	1,471	1,642	1,367	1,034	485
Balance	-996	-1,045	-1,280	-928	-1,147	-1,237	-1,282	-946	-775	-310
SUMATRA										
Exports to	106	85	132	135	144	184	152	188	152	68
Imports from	2	13	B	12	6	10	13	5	2	15
Balance	+104	+72	+132	+123	+138	+174	+139	+183	+150	+53

TABLE 12. BALANCE OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH EAST ASIA AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES DURING 1911-12.—(Continued)

Country	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42
CYCEYLON										
Exports to	682	624	684	746	762	559	674	769	1,023	
Imports from	177	129	129	149	176	166	146	219	340	
Balance	+505	+495	+555	+597	+586	+393	+419	+550	+683	
CHINA										
Exports to	357	454	262	188	125	199	247	850	237	
Imports from	295	223	207	185	139	98	173	263	283	
Balance	+62	+231	+55	+3	-14	+101	+74	+587	+724	-46
FRENCH INDO-CHINA										
Exports to	38	59	50	57	83	64	68	128	64	1
Imports from	20	19	67	66	41	5	14	260	48	
Balance	+18	+40	-17	-9	+42	+59	+54	-132	+16	+1
JAPAN										
Exports to	1,405	1,363	2,481	2,207	3,033	1,851	1,482	1,416	919	477
Imports from	2,048	1,636	2,079	2,184	2,127	2,219	1,541	1,927	2,154	1,178
Balance	-643	-273	+402	+23	+906	-368	-59	-511	-1,235	-701
JAVA										
Exports to	74	47	50	48	79	102	75	144	106	487
Imports from	374	239	191	175	44	37	51	337	73	195
Balance	-300	-192	-141	-127	+35	+65	+24	-193	+38	+292
SUMATRA										
Exports to	48	44	43	53	39	8	6	12
Imports from	18	14	45	19	57	160	16	58
Balance	+30	+30	-2	+34	-18	-152	-10	-46

TABLE 12. BALANCE OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH EAST ASIA AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES DURING 1911-42—(Continued)

Country	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22
BALANCE OF TRADE											
PHILIPPINES AND GUAM	32	40	8	12	8	25	18	45	31	33	21
Exports to	5	7	6	7	9	31	16	29	11	11	10
Imports from	+27	+33	+2	+5	-1	+2	+12	+16	+20	+22	+11
Balance											
SIAM											
Exports to	54	78	93	92	99	142	107	119	100	162	53
Imports from	37	31	28	42	34	42	35	82	61
Balance	+17	+47	+65	+51	+58	+57	+87	+72	+37	+39	+104
STRaits Settlements											
Exports to	879	919	679	520	525	640	693	739	758	909	768
Imports from	238	308	343	337	375	388	525	561	593	481	408
Balance	+581	+611	+336	+183	+150	+252	+168	+178	+165	+428	+360
AUSTRALIA											
Exports to	279	294	410	395	445	483	550	641	340	630	401
Imports from	110	95	92	85	67	97	89	217	324	120	944
Balance	+169	+199	+318	+310	+378	+386	+461	+424	+16	+510	-543
NEW ZEALAND											
Exports to	44	55	56	61	62	78	76	90	59	86	52
Imports from	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	1	B	1
Balance	+44	+55	+56	+61	+62	+78	+75	+89	+38	+86	+51
BURMA											
Exports to
Imports from
Balance

TABLE 12. RATIO OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH EAST ASIA AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES DURING 1911-12 - (Continued)

Country	ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF INDIA						
	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
PHILIPPINES AND GUAM	34	29	40	32	49	53	64
Exports to	7	8	11	10	12	8	10
Imports from	+27	+21	+29	+22	+37	+45	+54
Balance							+44
SIAM							+35
Exports to	147	171	174	176	169	198	147
Imports from	34	23	30	11	13	23	19
Balance	+113	+148	+144	+165	+156	+175	+141
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS							+128
Exports to	811	852	832	1,018	950	928	802
Imports from	448	493	486	566	582	584	617
Balance	+363	+359	+346	+412	+368	+344	+185
AUSTRALIA							+233
Exports to	543	571	713	754	778	661	738
Imports from	97	107	76	144	170	192	846
Balance	+446	+464	+637	+610	+603	+469	-108
NEW ZEALAND							+24
Exports to	62	88	76	105	98	77	87
Imports from	B	B	14	1	1	1	4
Balance	+62	+88	+62	+104	+97	+76	+86
BURMA							+74
Exports to
Imports from
Balance							+59

TABLE 12. BALANCE OF TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND SOUTH EAST ASIA AND FAR EASTERN COUNTRIES DURING 1911—42 (Continued)

	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1935-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	BALANCE OF TRADE
PHILIPPINES AND GUAM	47	41	29	34	51	42	41	63
Exports to	3	3	4	5	8	10	6	9
Imports from	+44	+38	+25	+29	+43	+32	+35	+54
Balance											
SIAM	46	93	115	91	61	47	70	104	90	41	8
Exports to	23	45	194	81	25	3	10	53	27
Imports from	+23	+48	-79	+10	+36	+44	+60	+51	+63	+23	
Balance											
STRaits Settlements	364	334	331	377	443	265	217	274	340	445	534
Exports to	279	268	311	366	383	374	413	482	532
Imports from	+85	+66	+20	+11	+60	-109	-196	-208	-192	-86	
Balance											
AUSTRALIA	388	298	271	287	322	313	297	550	736	1,244	496
Exports to	107	102	97	125	112	166	241	239	248
Imports from	+281	+196	+174	+162	+210	+147	+56	+311	+488	+748	
Balance											
NEW ZEALAND	38	53	50	40	44	47	43	74
Exports to	3	2	3	4	43	16	16	13
Imports from	+35	+51	+47	+36	+1	+31	+27	+61
Balance											
BURMA	1,002	1,110	1,129	1,110	1,347	1,806	1,291
Exports to					2,622	2,731	2,596	2,435	3,138	2,862	2,938
Imports from					-1,620	-1,621	-1,467	-1,325	-1,791	-1,056	-1,647
Balance											

TABLE 13. ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURES OF INDIAN
LABOURERS IN CEYLON

(Source: *Report on Indian Labour Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya*
Govt. of Madras 1917, p. 43, and Ceylon Year Book 1948.)

Period	Total Arrivals	Total Departures	Col. (2) — Col. (3) Difference + or —
1855-1859	331,758	197,521	+ 134,237
1860-1864	327,791	232,029	+ 95,762
1865-1869	344,066	268,621	+ 75,445
1870-1874	448,032	368,083	+ 79,949
1875-1879	807,080	448,036	+ 359,044
1880-1884	235,375	297,790	- 62,415
1885-1889	304,683	257,658	+ 47,025
1890-1894	480,648	312,987	+ 167,661
1895-1899	605,343	470,502	+ 134,841
1900-1904	563,440	412,437	+ 151,003
1905-1909	519,832	328,870	+ 190,962
1910-1915	627,102	379,119	+ 247,983
1921-1924	469,434	209,254	+ 260,180
1925-1929	591,373	461,179	+ 130,194
1930-1935	335,729	357,110	- 21,381
1941-1945	193,575	265,648	- 72,073

TABLE 14. TOTAL POPULATION OF CEYLON AND
THE NUMBER OF INDIANS ENUMERATED IN CEYLON
AT THE DIFFERENT CENSUSES

(IN THOUSANDS)

Year	Population of Ceylon	No. of persons born in India enumerated in Ceylon	% of (3) : (2)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1881	2,763	276	9·8
1891	3,012	265	8·9
1901	3,578	437	12·1
1911	4,110	474	11·5
1921	4,504	461	10·2
1931	5,312	Not Available	.
1946	6,696	751*	11·2

* Indian Tamils and other Indians including Indian Moors

TABLE 15. RESIDENT POPULATION ON ESTATES IN CEYLON

(Source: *Report of the Social Services Commission* p. 144)

Resident Population	Year			
	1938	1943	1944	1945
Indians	682,299	671,991	613,472	654,611
Others	90,499	149,634	151,547	158,050
Total	772,798	821,625	675,019	812,661

TABLE 16. SOURCES OF IMMIGRATION INTO CEYLON
FROM SOUTH INDIA(Source: *Report of the Immigration Commission, Ceylon*)

Districts	General Character of Rural Economy	Average Annual No. of Immigrants (1921-35)	
		Plantation Labourers	Free Labourers
Tinnevelly	Poor Agricultural Conditions and no Subsidiary Occupation	2,267	42,898
Ramnad	Do.	6,092	15,618
Trichinopoly and districts around it	Landlordism, Defective land tenure, Rice Cultivation, No subsidiary occupation	73,052	17,375
Arcot, Madras, Chingleput, etc.		11,331	5,035
Travancore, Cochin, Malabar	Better land tenure, Development of small-scale Industries	545	15,984

TABLE 17. INDIAN POPULATION IN BURMA DURING 1901-31

(Source—*Indian Census Report*)

		(In Thousands)			
		1901	1911	1921	1931
1.	Total population	..	10,491	12,115	13,212
2.	Indian population	..	633	839	881
	% of 2 to 1	..	5·84	6·15	6·69
					6·95

TABLE 18. NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF INDIANS IN THE
TOTAL POPULATION OF MALAYA

		1901	1911	1921	1931
1.	Total Population of Malaya	..	2,672,700	3,358,100	4,385,300
2.	Indians	115,536	267,159	471,628	624,009
	% of (2) to (1)	..	10·00	14·04	14·23